







A

PRACTICAL

ENGLISH GRAMMAR;

WITH

PROGRESSIVE EXERCISES

IN

ORTHOGRAPHY,

ANALYSIS, AND GRAMMATICAL COMPOSITION,

ADAPTED TO THE

USE OF SCHOOLS AND PRIVATE STUDENTS.

BY JOHN FROST, A. M.

PROFESSOR OF BELLES LETTRES IN THE HIGH SCHOOL OF PHILADELPHIA;

AUTHOR OF "EASY EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION," "HISTORY OF

THE UNITED STATES," "AMERICAN SPEAKER," &c. &c.

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PREFACE.

In the title-page, this book is called "A Practical English The Author has endeavoured to give it a just claim to this title, by rendering it strictly practical throughout. He has observed that most of the grammars now in use appear to consider the English language as having been formed not for the purpose of being spoken and written, but merely for the purpose of being parsed.* Accordingly, parsing is made the grand object of grammatical instruction; and it is considered, that if a boy can parse correctly and fluently, he is a good grammarian. The consequence is, that pupils toil for years in English grammar; learn to parse with great fluency and exactness; and, nevertheless, violate the most obvious rules of grammar in almost every sentence which they speak or write. Many of them are deep in the theory of syntax, who are wofully deficient in the practice of orthography. This deficiency is not the fault of teachers, but of the textbooks which they are under the necessity of using; and it is precisely for the purpose of remedying the evil and giving a more practical character to grammatical instruction, that the following work has been prepared.

As it was the Author's object to suggest improvements in the methods of teaching, rather than to offer any new theories on the subject of grammar, he has left undisturbed the

^{*}The Author would not be understood to disparage parsing, as a grammatical exercise. It is useful in its proper place and proportion, and it has received its due share of attention in this work.

forms and classifications in general use; and has endeavoured, as far as possible, to render the pupils who shall use the book expert grammarians, by requiring them, through the use of copious oral and written Exercises, to reduce their knowledge to practice, as fast as it is acquired. To enliven the task of writing grammatical composition, he has not hesitated to introduce pictures; experience and observation having convinced him of their utility in aiding the exertions of both pupil and teacher.

In accordance with this design, it has been found necessary to assign different proportions of space to the various parts of the subject from those which they have received in other grammars.

Orthography has been more fully treated than usual; and copious exercises are given. A faithful inculcation of the general rules for spelling, by means of exercises of this kind, will occasion a great saving of time to the learner. The most obvious rules are perpetually violated by those who have neglected this species of exercise. The rules of construction are much shorter than usual; and the rules of arrangement * are more numerous and particular.

The subject of Derivation, which is now claiming so large a share of attention from teachers, has, for the sake of convenience, been thrown into an Appendix. This portion of the book will by no means be deemed superfluous, by those who have witnessed the delight with which young persons address themselves to the study of the origin and history of words. Its utility in forming accurate habits of thought, and giving a mastery over language, is universally admitted. The article devoted to this subject will be found more sys-

^{*} The same rules of arrangement which are found in the Author's "Easy Exercises in Composition," are used in this work.

tematic, full and exact, than any treatise, comprised in so small a space, which has yet appeared. The writer would not express himself so strongly on this subject, if it were not also the fact that this article has been copied entire from M'Culloch's Grammar. To the same work he is also indebted for many of his definitions, rules, and exercises. He would have adopted also Mr. M'Culloch's views with respect to the classification of adjectives and pronouns, and the conjugation of verbs, but he was desirous to leave the prevailing system of English grammar, introduced by Lowth, and disseminated by Murray, and his other commentators, untouched; and to innovate only where he believed that the methods of instruction could be improved.

The definitions and rules designed to be committed to memory, have been expressed with as much brevity as was deemed consistent with clearness and simplicity; and the practical Exercises appended to each separate branch, have been made as copious and varied as the limits of a cheap school-book would permit.

From the same work to which the author acknowledges himself so largely indebted in every part of this volume—M'Culloch's Grammar—he copies the following article, as the most suitable supplement to this Preface.

Hints in regard to the mode of teaching Grammar.

It is desirable that the pupil, before proceeding to study grammar systematically, should possess as much previous acquaintance with the subject as will enable him at least to distinguish the four principal Parts of Speech; and this preliminary information the teacher should attempt to give him by oral instruction, in the course of his daily lessons in reading and spelling.

In using a text-book, the chief error to be avoided is that of making the study a mere exercise of memory. It is desirable, no doubt, that fundamental definitions and leading rules should be got by heart; but it is still more desirable that the young person should be able to understand their signification, and to answer all questions that may be put in regard to them.

It may perhaps be thought, that the exercises which are subjoined to the various sections, afford such means of ascertaining the progress of the learner as ought to supersede the necessity of teaching those sections themselves catechetically. But experience will prove this supposition to be erroneous. These exercises are, indeed, designed as a trial of the pupil's knowledge and acuteness; but they are necessarily too general and limited to afford a sufficient test. And it will probably be found, that a child may be able to perform them all, who has but a vague comprehension of the principles, and a scanty acquaintance with the leading facts of the science.

It may be proper also to guard against the error of supposing that the exclusive, or even the chief end in view, is to make the pupil acquainted with the practice of parsing. Were this all that is designed, there would be no necessity for calling in the aid of a text-book, as a knowledge of the distinguishing properties of the different kinds of words, as well as of their syntactical connexion, might be communicated with sufficient accuracy by mere viva voce instruction. The object of teaching grammar, as a science, is not merely to enable the student to parse, but also to familiarize him generally with the structure of language, and to give him such an accurate acquaintance with the etymology, application, and combination of words, as will fit him to understand his mother-tongue with ease, and to speak and write it with propriety.

In teaching from the following work, different methods may be followed; and the type in which it is printed will be found so varied and disposed, as to afford the teacher considerable facilities in adapting his course to the scholar's acquirements, and the time that can be allotted to the study.

If the master wishes merely to communicate a general knowledge of the subject, or if the period for study is limited, he may satisfy himself with what appears in the large type, and that part of the small which is necessary to exemplify the rules.

If his pupil has no previous knowledge of the science, and is not restricted as to time, he may take the large type with its illustrations, (omitting, however, the introductory section, headed "Nature and Objects of Grammar,") as a first course; and leave the remaining small type to be taken up, along with the introductory matter, in a second and supplementary course.

If the scholar has adequate preliminary knowledge, and possesses the command of time, the best plan will be to follow the order of the work; in which case — with respect to the large type— the pupil, after having studied it so as to understand its meaning, should be required to commit it accurately to memory; and with respect to the small type, to make it

the subject of frequent perusal and examination, in the same way as is often done with reading lessons in seminaries. It is only in this way that the whole science can be brought fully before the student in its due proportions.

Teachers who have previously employed text-books in which spelling of words, derivation, and arrangement of words in sentences, are despatched in a few paragraphs, will probably object to the great space allotted to these subjects in the present work, and feel disposed to omit them, either wholly or in part, in the process of tuition. But it is hoped that this expedient will not be adopted without mature consideration. There is no branch of grammar of greater practical utility than derivation. An acquaintance with its details is of incalculable moment, especially to those who have no prospect of obtaining a classical education; and the teacher cannot confer a greater benefit upon mere English scholars, than by requiring them to get accurately by heart the leading roots, prefixes, and affixes, of the language. Nor is an acquaintance with the general rules which apply to the spelling of words, and their arrangement in sentences, unimportant. Arrangement is a part of Syntax as essential as either Concord or Government; and the general laws of spelling will scarcely be deemed useless by any one who remembers that the design in including Orthography in a course of grammar, is not so much to teach the art of spelling, as to impress upon the mind the general analogies which prevail in this, as in every other branch of the science.

With respect to the mode of teaching the details of the grammar, no specific directions can be given. But it may be suggested generally, that much explanatory information, which no text-book can supply, must be given by the teacher in the course of instruction; that the pupil should be required to find out additional illustrations of each of the definitions and rules; that he should not be allowed to pass any section until he has thoroughly mastered it; that the knowledge thus acquired should be impressed upon his memory by frequent revisals and repetitions; that the exercises should be written out as well as read by him; and that he should be constantly called upon, in the course of his ordinary reading, to apply his grammatical knowledge to the explanation of all the varieties of phraseology which may happen to occur.



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INTRODUCTION.

THE ORIGIN AND USES OF GRAMMAR.

IF, in conversation, we should hear a person use the following expression, "Him and me are brothers," we should say that he was speaking incorrectly, and that he could not have received a good education. The person, thus censured, might inquire in return, "Why his language was incorrect, since it was quite plain and intelligible?" The answer would, of course, be, It is incorrect, because it is not according to the principles of Grammar. He might then reply, "What is this Grammar, which undertakes to direct how I must speak, and what words I must use, in order to be considered a person of good education?" We might then reply to him with a definition of the subject of this little volume.

Grammar is a science and an art: as a science, it explains the principles and usages of language; and it is the art of speaking and writing correctly. There are many who understand it as a science, but do not practise it as an art. It is our purpose, in the following pages, to aid the pupil, as far as may be in our power, in becoming a proficient in both these respects.

The person of whom we have already spoken, might pursue his inquiries a little farther, and say, "Whence does Grammar receive its authority? Did it exist before language? Did people learn to speak by it at first?"

Give a specimen of incorrect language. Why is it incorrect? What

We should answer, By no means. Language existed long before Grammar was invented; in the same manner as animals, plants, and rocks existed before the sciences of zoology, botany, and mineralogy were invented. As the animals, plants, and rocks are the subjects of these sciences, so words and phrases, which have been sanctioned by national and reputable usage, are the subjects of the science of Grammar. It derives its authority from the accuracy with which it determines what is, and what is not, the usage of good writers and speakers.

This brings us back to the point from which we started; and enables us to show that the expression above cited is incorrect and ungrammatical, because it is contrary to long established usage among educated people, who speak the English language.

The person who used the expression might turn upon us again, and inquire, "Why should I learn English Grammar? Of what consequence is it to me or to my friends, whether I speak according to its rules or not, if I can make myself understood?"

As this is a question which often arises in the minds of young pupils who have not the courage to put it to their teachers, we will endeavour to answer it fully.

In the first place, it is not easy, nor is it always possible for a speaker or writer to make his language intelligible without conforming to the rules of grammar. Where the subject on which a person speaks or writes is difficult or intricate, it is absolutely necessary to use grammatical language, in order to convey his meaning clearly to the mind of the hearer or reader.

In the next place, the principles of grammar having been adopted by general consent, they are the best means which we have for interpreting or explaining the meaning of spoken or

is Grammar? Did language exist before grammar? With what sciences is grammar compared? What is the first reason assigned for learning

written language. The importance of conforming to these principles may be thus illustrated. If a piece of writing, for example a contract, or a man's will, were executed in such a manner as to admit of two different interpretations, one ungrammatical, giving the advantage, to be derived from the contract or will, to John; and the other grammatical, giving the advantage to Thomas, the law of the land, which determines all such matters, would decide in favour of the grammatical interpretation; and would, consequently, give the advantage to Thomas. It is easy to perceive, therefore, that the disposal of a fortune might be made to depend upon the grammatical interpretation of a sentence.

This illustration is sufficient to show that it is useful and important to understand grammar sufficiently to be able to conform strictly to its rules in writing.

But the utility of grammar is not confined to the correct execution of legal instruments.

It is also an indispensable qualification for those who seek distinction in literary pursuits; and it is necessary to the respectable discharge of the commonest offices and trusts in business. The clerk, the trader, or the mechanic, as well as the author or the professional man, will meet with difficulties and mortifications at every step of his career in life, if he is unable to write a correct and handsome letter, or draw up a neatly composed report or memorial.

Again, one should learn grammar to enable him to form a just critical estimate of the English and American literature, and to relish its beauties. If he does not understand grammar, he cannot pronounce with confidence whether this or that book be correctly written or not; still less is he qualified to decide respecting its rhetorical beauties or blemishes; because grammar is the introduction to rhetoric, and no proficiency can be

grammar?—the second? Give the illustration. For what is grammar an indispensable qualification? In what other pursuits is it necessary? How does grammar aid our judgment respecting the merits of books?

made in the latter study without a previous acquaintance with the former.

It is also important to understand and apply the principles of grammar in our common conversation; not only because it enables us to make our language understood by educated persons, but because it furnishes the readiest evidence of our having received a good education ourselves, enables us to converse with intelligent people on equal terms, and, to a certain extent, furnishes us with a passport to the best society.

Every science reduces the objects of which it treats into certain classes, in which these objects are arranged according to the degree of resemblance which they bear to each other. To a person ignorant of botany, the innumerable plants and trees which form the subject of that science present a complete chaos; and he is unable to determine their properties, or even remember the names of a thousandth part of them; but, by means of regular classification and systematic arrangement, the science of botany has rendered the study of plants an easy and agreeable task; and one who is acquainted with it is delighted with its simplicity and order.

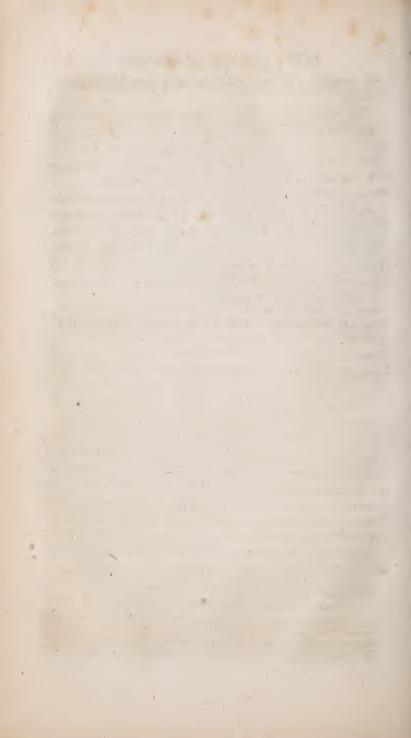
In like manner, to a person ignorant of grammar, the many thousand words in a language, the relations of those words to each other, and the laws which determine their correct usage in speaking and writing, present a subject of much perplexity and doubt; and, in attempting to write his own language, he is always uncertain whether he is expressing himself correctly, or exposing his want of knowledge by palpable blunders. On the other hand, the person who is acquainted with the science of grammar, having seen the words reduced to a few comprehensive classes, their relations pointed out with accuracy, and the proper method of using them strictly determined by reference to the practice of reputable writers, is never at a loss what word to use, or how to place it, in order to express him-

To what is grammar the introduction? In what other respects is it important? Why is classification necessary in science? How is it use-

self correctly. All such questions have been decided by the science.

The application of taste to fine writing—the determining what form of expression is elegant or coarse — belongs properly to rhetoric, which treats of the higher efforts of composition. It is the province of grammar simply to determine what is correct according to the usage of reputable writers. A sentence may be grammatically correct which is not written according to the laws of rhetoric; but a sentence cannot be rhetorically correct which violates the rules of grammar. Grammar, therefore, as we have already remarked, is absolutely necessary as an introduction to the study of rhetoric; it is, consequently, indispensable for any one who would attempt the higher beauties of composition.

fully applied in grammar? What is it the province of grammar to determine?



ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

1. Grammar is the *science* which exhibits, in a systematic form, the leading principles and usages of language.

2. Grammar, when applied to practice, is also considered as an art; and, in this point of view, it is defined to be the

art of speaking and writing correctly.

3. In languages which have both a written and a spoken form, the usages of the former, rather than of the latter, determine the rules of grammar.

- 4. The written is always more perfect than the spoken form of a language. Conversation being common to the unlearned and ignorant, as well as the educated classes of society, admits of many liberties which are no longer permitted when the language is reduced to writing. In this case, it becomes necessary to conform to the usage of the best writers. It is upon the practice of such writers that the rules of grammar are founded.
 - 5. Written language consists of a succession of sentences.
- 6. Sentences are composed of words, words are composed of syllables, and syllables of letters; so that the grammar of a written language treats of letters, syllables, words, and sentences.
- 7. English Grammar exhibits, in a systematic form, the principles and usages of the English language; and, when applied to practice, it is the art of speaking and writing the English language correctly.
- 8. It is divided into four parts: Orthography, Etymology, Syntax, and Prosody.
- 9. Orthography treats of letters, syllables, and the spelling of words.

^{1.} What is grammar considered as a science?—2. As an art? 3. What is said of written language? 4. Upon what are the rules of grammar founded? 6. Of what does the grammar of a written language treat? 7. Define English Grammar. 8. How is it divided? 9. What is the

- 10. Etymology treats of the classification, inflection, and derivation of words.
- 11. Syntax treats of the proper method of arranging words so as to form sentences according to the usage of the most approved writers.
- 12. Prosody treats of the structure of poetical composition.

PART I.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

13. Orthography treats of letters, syllables, and the spelling of words.

I. LETTERS.

- 14. A letter is a mark or character representing an elementary sound in language.
 - 15. The English alphabet consists of twenty-six letters.
 - 16. Letters are divided into vowels and consonants.
- 17. A Vowel is a letter which makes by itself a perfect sound.
- 18. A Consonant is a letter which cannot be sounded without a vowel.
- 19. A, e, i, o, u, (and w and y, when they do not begin a word or syllable,) are vowels.
- 20. The remaining nineteen letters, (with w and y, when they begin a word or syllable,) are consonants.
 - The distinction of letters into vowels and consonants arises from the structure of the human organs of speech. The sounds produced by the openings of the organs, and which may be prolonged without changing their position, are represented by the vowels; the sounds

subject of Orthography?—10. Etymology?—11. Syntax?—12. Prosody?
14. Define a letter. 15. How many in English? 16. How divided?
17. Define a Vowel.—18. A Consonant. 19. Which are vowels? 20.

produced by the joinings or shuttings of the organs are represented by the consonants.

Consonants are divided into mutes and semi-vowels, according as the articulations, or joinings of the organs in the enunciation of them, are more or less close. Thus k, p, and t, which wholly intercept the voice, as in the syllables ek, ep, et, are called mutes; b, d, and g, which admit a short prolongation of sound, as in eb, ed, eg, are called semi-vowels.

The consonants have also received different names from the organs chiefly employed in uttering them. Thus, p, b, f; v, are named labials, or letters of the lip; s, z, dentals, or letters of the teeth; d, t, gingivals, or letters of the gums; g, j, k, palatals, or letters of the palate; m, n, nasals, or letters of the nose; l, r, linguals, or letters of the tongue. But, as more than one organ is concerned in the utterance of almost every consonant, these names are not strictly, but only generally, applicable.

21. The union of two vowels in one sound is called a *Diphthong*.

When both vowels are heard, the diphthong is called *proper*; as oi in voice. When only one is heard, it is called an *improper* diphthong; as ea in eagle.

22. The union of three vowels in one sound is called a *Triphthong*.

The diphthongs in English are numerous; the triphthongs are only three, eau, ieu, and iew. U, preceded by q, is never reckoned part of a diphthong or triphthong, but treated as if it were part of the q.

23. In written compositions, the letters have two forms—capitals and small letters.

24. Capitals are used only at the beginning of words in particular situations.

25. Small letters form the body of the composition.

26. The following are the situations in which words are begun with capitals:—

The first word of every sentence, whether in prose or verse; the first word of every line in poetry; the first word of a quotation in a direct form; the names of the Supreme Being; all proper names, and adjectives derived from proper names; the names of the days of the week and of the months of the year; any word which the

Which consonants? 21. Define Diphthong.—22. Triphthong. 23. How many forms have letters? 24. When are capitals used? 25. Small letters? 26. Describe the situations in which words begin with capitals.

writer may think very important, as the Reformation, the Revolution; the pronoun I, and the interjection O; and generally, also, the name of an object personified, as, "Where is thy sting, O Death!"

II. SYLLABLES.

- 27. A syllable is a single sound, represented by one or more letters; as a, an, and, wand.
 - 28. In every syllable there must be at least one vowel.
- 29. Words of one syllable are called *Monosyllables*; words of two syllables, *Dissyllables*; words of three syllables *Trisyllables*; and words of more than three syllables, *Polysyllables*.

The best mode of dividing words into syllables is to follow, as nearly as possible, the divisions made by the organs of speech in accurately pronouncing them. Thus, hab-it, ham-let, cru-el, an-i-mal.

The only case in which it is allowable to adopt a different mode is when the pronunciation is anomalous or peculiar. Thus, in such words as vicious, condition, &c., where ci and ti are pronounced like sh, the division is vi-cious, con-di-tion, not vici-ous, con-diti-on.

III. SPELLING.*

30. Spelling is the art of expressing words by their proper letters.

The spelling of the English language, in common with that of all living languages, is regulated chiefly, though not wholly, by the prevailing mode of pronunciation.

The chief anomalies in English orthography proceed from the number

^{*} To Teachers—The rules and exercises here given are of a strictly practical character, and are, of course, designed to accustom the pupil to correct spelling. Every teacher will use them in the manner which his own judgment may dictate. I would, however, suggest that, at first, the pupil should be required to write the exercises, and merely refer to the rules in order to write them correctly. In reviewing the grammar, it may be expedient for the pupil to commit the rules to memory. The importance of spelling correctly will furnish a sufficient inducement to the most indolent learner to incur this small amount of labour for the purpose of acquiring so necessary an accomplishment.

^{27.} What is a syllable? 28. What must there be in every syllable? 29. How are words classified with respect to the number of their syllables? 30. What is Spelling?

of silent consonants, and the impossibility of describing their situations by any thing like general rules.

The following instances of words in which the consonants b, c, d, g, and h, are silent, will exhibit the nature of English usage on this point:—

Debt	Indict	Handsome	Gnat	Thyme
Dumb	Victuals	Groundsel	Reign	Asthma
Subtle	Scent	Knowledge	Impugn	Heir
Bdellium	Ascend	Fieldfare	Phlegm	Rhetoric

Almost the only orthographical usages that approach to such uniformity as to-warrant the deduction of general rules from them, are those which respect the *final letters* of words, and the mode in which augments, or additional syllables, are appended to them.

1. FINAL LETTERS.

- 1. E is the principal final vowel in English words; and final e is always silent, except in a few monosyllables,—me, we, he, she; a few words in ee, as, free, tree, refugee; and a few terms of foreign origin, as epitomè, synecdochè.
- 2. All the consonants are used as *final* letters, with the exception of j, q, v, and c and g soft.
- 3. The final letter of a word is, in general, either a silent e or a consonant, according as the vowel contained in the final syllable of the word has or has not its long sound. Thus, made, mad; mete, met; pine, pin; note, not; tube, tub.

From this general principle, however, there are some deviations:-

- (1.) The words have, bade, are, were, give, come, one, done, love, with some others, end in silent e, though the preceding vowels have not their long sound.
- (2.) Words ending in the consonant h do not admit a silent e after them, though the preceding vowel be long,—except, sometimes, when preceded by t; as bathe, swathe, tithe, clothe.
- (3.) Words ending in two different consonants do not, in general, admit a silent e after them, though the preceding vowel be long; as night, bo't, host: such words as horde, bronze, change, haste, &c., are exceptions.
- 4. Words whose final syllable contains a diphthong do not in general admit the silent e after them; as faith, grief,

heat, toil. The exceptions are such words as believe, perceive, renounce, rejoice, &c.

4. In *Monosyllables*, the final consonant is generally single, except in words ending in f, l, or s, preceded by a single vowel, which generally double the consonant.

Thus we write rub, bud, frog, oh, ham, tin, nap, fur, pet, fox, phiz, each with a single consonant; but we double the consonant in staff, stiff, scoff, stuff; all, ell, hill, roll, skull; mass, less, hiss, toss, truss.

The words in which this rule does not hold are chiefly the following:

—ebb, add, odd, egg, inn, err, purr, butt, buzz; and if, of; as, gas,
has, was, yes, is, his, this, wis, us, thus.

5. In words of more than one syllable, the final consonant is generally single, except in words ending in f or s, preceded by a single vowel, which double the consonant.

Thus we write syllabub, cinnamon, sinister, &c.; but we double the consonant in distaff, mastiff, rebuff, harass, &c.

6. The use of c hard as a final consonant is peculiar. It is used as a final letter only in words of more than one syllable, and in these only when preceded by i, or ia; as, music, maniac: in monosyllables, it is always accompanied by k; as lack, deck, trick, lock, luck, except lac, zinc.

2. AUGMENTS.

When words are increased by appending to them such additions as s, ed, er, est, ing, able, ible, en, ish, ful, ous, ly, y, ment, ness, &c., they undergo changes, in certain cases, in their final letters; the change varying according as the final letter is a vowel or a consonant.

7. Words ending in silent e, upon assuming an augment, generally lose the e, if the augment begin with a vowel; but retain the e, if the augment begin with a consonant.

Thus, silent e is cut off before able, ible, ing, ish, &c; as cure, curable; sense, sensible; place, placing; slave, slavish; but is retained before ful, less, ly, ment, ness, &c.; as peaceful, guileless, closely, incitement, paleness.

The principal deviations from this rule are in the cases of the augments able and ous. When silent e is preceded by v, or by c or g soft, the e is retained before able; as moveable, peaceable, chargeable. When silent e is preceded by g soft, it is retained before ous; as,

courageous; and when preceded by c soft, it is changed into i before ous; as grace, gracious.

8. Words ending in y, preceded by a vowel, generally retain y, upon taking an augment; as boy, boys, boyish; coy, coyly. But words ending in y, preceded by a consonant, change the y into i before receiving an addition; as fancy, fanciful; ready, readily; except when the addition is ing or ish or 's; in both of which cases the y is retained; as, carrying, babyish.

Words ending in ty, upon assuming the affix ous, change y into e; as, beauty, beauteous.

9. Words which end in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, on receiving an augment beginning with a vowel, either double the final consonant, (or preserve it single,) according as the last syllable is or is not accented.

If the last syllable be accented, (or if the word be monosyllabic,) the consonant is doubled upon assuming an augment; 'as, begin, beginner; glad, gladden. But if the accent fall on any syllable except the last, (or if a diphthong precede the final consonant) the consonant is not doubled; as offer, offering; defeat, defeated.*

The words apparelled, cancelled, caviller, coralline, counsellor, crystalline, duellist, jeweller, levelling, libeller, revelling, rivalling, traveller, are not spelt in accordance with this rule.

10. Words ending in a double consonant retain both consonants upon assuming the augment, whether the augment begin with a vowel or a consonant; except words in ll, which generally drop one l before taking an augment beginning with a consonant. Thus, scoffer, oddity; fulness, chillness.

3. COMPOUNDS, &c.

11. Compound words are generally written in the same way as the simple words which compose them. Thus, herein, uphill, hereafter, recall, &c.

^{*} In some instances, the accent of a word is changed in order to admit the augment;—in which case, the accentuation of the augmented, not the original word, determines the spelling. Thus confer, conference; refer, reference; prefer, preferable; métal, metallic; médal, medallion. Overlooking this circumstance, some grammarians have thought it necessary to treat conference, reference, preferable, metallic, medallion, &c., as if they were deviations from the ordinary rule.

But there are many deviations from this usage, especially among words which end in *ll*; as, *albeit*, *almighty*, *already*, *also*, *altogether*, *always*, withal, bulrush, fulfil, careful, handful.

12. There are many English words which may be used with propriety in two different ways.

Thus, the words connection and connexion; enquire, inquire; favour, favor; honour, honor; inflection, inflexion; negotiate, negociate; &c., are used indiscriminately, by the best modern writers.

13. The deviations from analogy in English orthography are so numerous, that they can be fully acquired only by a practical acquaintance with the usages of the language.

The following are some of the most frequent:-

In adopting French words, it is the general usage of the language to change the French termination tre into ter; accordingly we write chamber and charter, instead of the French chambre and charter; but we still retain metre, nitre, sceptre, sepulchre, spectre, and theatre.

We write author without u, but retain the u in honour.

Moveable and immovable are both established usages; so are tameable and blamable.

We write equalize with only one l, and tranquillize with two, though the primitive words equal and tranquil both end alike in one l.

Defence and offence are established usages; but their derivatives are defensive and offensive.

We write exceed, proceed, and succeed; but, though the Latin cedo be the root of all alike, we write accede, recede, secede.

EXERCISES ON ORTHOGRAPHY.

LETTERS.

Rectify the errors in the use of capital letters, in the following sentences:—

The Great phocion, one of the most celebrated personages among the Ancient grecians, was condemned to death by his ungrateful Countrymen; And, when about to drink the fatal Hemlock, was asked if he had any thing to say to his Son. "bring him before me," said He. "my Dear Son," said phocion, "i entreat you to serve your country with as much Fidelity as I have done, And, above all, to forget that an unjust death was the Price with which She recompensed My services."

he dies! The Friend of Sinners dies!
lo! salem's Daughters weep around;
A solemn Darkness veils the skies;
a sudden trembling shakes the ground.
say, "live for ever, Glorious king!
born to Redeem, and Strong to save!"
Then ask the Monster, "where's thy Sting?
And Where's thy Victory, boasting grave?"

SYLLABLES.

Divide the following words into syllables :-

Abjure, ancient, arrogant, ashes, bluster, capricious, cherish, coalition, coeval, conviction, debase, delicious, efficacious, ferocious, filter, filtration, gardener, impregnable, intrepid, judicial, momentary, musician, nuncio, onion, optical, perversity, quaternion, reverential, society, solidity, tergiversation, transient, unanimity, union, verisimilitude, worshipped, yellowish, zany.

SPELLING.

Correct the false spelling in the following words, by introducing the silent consonants that are omitted.

Dout, dum, clim, com, crum, lam, lim, num, sutle. Asend, desent, musle, sene, sience, septre, zarina,

Hankerchief, hansel, grounsel.

Benin, desin, ensin, forein, nash, poinant.

Agast, onest, rapsody, reumatism, rubarb, Tames, Tomas.

Explain why each of the following words has a silent e as the final letter.

(See Rules 1, 2, 3):—

Alpine, blade, conè, divine, fete, guide, hue, pique. Grotesque, festive, passive, precipice, courage. Come, done, give, have, more, were, lathe, tithe.

Correct the false spelling in the following sentences, (see Rules 4 and 5):-

The trees budd, the bees humm, and the fishes leap in the nett; let us al hasten to fil our pitchers with thiss water before the eb of the tid.

You cannot place too much stres upon learning to spel properly.

Time is like a river stil appearing to pas away, yet stil coming onn.

Thiss strangerr hass been able to amas wealth, though he came to our country with only his staf in his hand.

Unroll that mapp, that I may follow the course of the canall untill it fal into the sea. Now hold it til I pas my finger along its course.

Correct the spelling of the following words, (see Rule 6):-

Attac, ecclesiastick, logick, musick, napsac, schismatick, sic, terrifick, trac, zinck, zodiack.

Affix the augments ing, ed, to the following words, (see Rules 7 & 8):—
Amplify, amuse, analyze, annoy, behave, calumniate, charge, defy, dedicate, destroy, efface, flay, fortify, humble, menace, rejoice.

Affix to the following words such of the augments, able, ible, en, ish, ful, ous, ly, y, ment, ness, &c., as their signification will allow them to take, (see Rules 7 & 8):—

Able, acknowledge, allege, allow, allay, ample, appellative, battle, beauty, blaspheme, body, bone, branchy, busy, cognosee, commence, cure, dandy, deduce, deface, duty, drone, elope, envy, force, fury, godly, grace, knave, ignoble, issue, joy, judge, measure, pity, plenty, space, lame, usury, white.

Affix to the following words ed, er, ing, or such other of the augments as they will admit, (see Rules 9 & 10):—

Assess', annul', aver', begin', ca'per, cav'il, decrep'it, entrap', jew'el, inhab'it, intermit', li'bel, permit', rebel', refer', spir'it, transfer', trepan', vis'it.

Correct the false spelling in the following sentences, applying the rules:-

A wis man is never les alon than when alone.

The finn of a fish is, as it wer, the limb by which he balances his body.

Modesty in youth is better than comelyness; and diligence than a plaiful fancy.

By defering repentance, we become the destroiers of our own happyness.

Cultivate sedatness of manner; be servicable to others; live harmlesly; avoid wilful evill; be always obligeing: These qualitys are all truely desireable.

A favorr confered with delicacy doubles the obligation.

But, O! how alterred was its sprightlyer tone
When Cheerfullness, a nymph of healthyest hue,
Her bow across her shoulders flung,
Her buskins gemed with mornning dew,
Blew an inspireing air, that dal and thickett rung;
The hunters' call, to Fawn and Dryad known!

As the lark with varyed tun
Carolls to the evening loud,
Mark the mild resplendent moen
Breakking through a partted cloud.
Linnets with unnumberred nots,
And the cukoo bird with two,
Tuneing sweet their mellow throates,
Bidd the setting sun adieu!

PART II.

ETYMOLOGY.

31. Etymology treats of the Classification, the Inflection, and the Derivation of words.

I. CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS.

- 32. The words of the English language are divided into eight classes, called *Parts of Speech*.
- 33. The names of these parts of speech are, Noun, Article, Pronoun, Verb, Adverb, Preposition, Conjunction, and Interjection.

NOUN.

- 34. A Noun is a word which is simply the name of an object; as, boy, school, lesson, obedience.
 - 35. There are two kinds of Nouns, Proper and Common.
- 36. Proper Nouns denote the names of individuals only; as, John, Philadelphia.
- 37. Common Nouns denote a whole kind or species; as man, city.
- 38. Proper nouns are used to distinguish individuals from the rest of the species. Common nouns are applicable to any individual of that species.

^{31.} Of what does Etymology treat? 32. How are the words of the English language classified? 33. Name the parts of speech. 34. What is a noun? 35. How many kinds of nouns are there? 36. What are proper nouns? What are common nouns? 38. How are proper nouns

- 39. Proper nouns are classed as common nouns when they are employed to describe more than one individual. Thus, "the Howards," the "Stuarts," being descriptive of classes of individuals, may be considered as common nouns. It is the same in such expressions as "He is the Cicero of the age;" "he is a Hercules."
- 40. The names of qualities, conceived as existing apart from the substances to which they belong, are called *Abstract Nouns*; as, *hardness*, *gentleness*.

ARTICLE.

- 41. An article is a word which is used to limit the signification of nouns.
- 42. The words a or an, and the, are the only articles in the English language.
- 43. A and an were originally ae and ane, and were probably used at first simply to convey the idea of unity; as ae man, ane ox. They still express the idea of unity; but less emphatically than when they were written after the ancient fashion.
- 44. A or an is called the indefinite Article; and the the definite Article.

ADJECTIVE.

- 45. An Adjective is a word which qualifies a noun; as good, tall.
- 46. An adjective expresses the quality of a noun not simply, but as conjoined with the noun; and is therefore never used without a noun being either expressed or understood.
- 47. Thus, tallness, goodness, greatness, and the like, which express properties or qualities simply, are not adjectives, but abstract nouns; though tall, good, and great, which qualify nouns, and cannot be used without them, either expressed or implied, are adjectives.

used? 39. When are they classed as common nouns? 40. What is an article? 41. What the only articles in the English language? 42. What were a and an originally? 43. Distinguish the definite from the indefinite article, 45. What is an adjective? 46. How does it express the quality of a noun? 47. Give examples. 48. How are

It is probable that all adjectives were originally nouns; and it sometimes happens that nouns are used in our language as adjectives; as gold ring, coal fire, sea water, ship stores.

Among the words used both as adjectives and nouns are Christian, cold, cunning, divine, evil, liquid, missionary, original, private,

ritual.

48. Adjectives are divided into two classes: Adjectives denoting quality, and Adjectives denoting number.

49. Adjectives denoting quality are such as good, bad,

large, great.

- 50. Adjectives denoting number are called *Numeral Adjectives*. They are divided into two kinds, *Cardinals* and *Ordinals*.
- 51. The Cardinals are those which simplify or denote number; as one, two, three.
- 52. The *Ordinals* are those which denote order, or number in succession; as *first*, *second*, *third*.

PRONOUN.

53. A Pronoun is a word which supplies the place of a noun; as it, which.

Thus in the sentence, "John said to his brother, I request you to walk to the city, and bring me the book which I ordered," I, me, you, and which, are pronouns or relative words, which refer to the words "John," brother," and "book" respectively, and supply their place.

54. The word to which a pronoun refers is called the Correlative or Antecedent.

This correlative is always either a noun, a word, or words equivalent in signification to a noun.

55. Pronouns are divided into *Personal*, *Relative*, and *Adjective*.

56. The *Personal* Pronouns are *I*, thou, he, she, and it; and their plurals we, ye or you, and they.

adjectives divided? 49. Give examples of adjectives denoting quality. 50. What are adjectives denoting number called? 50. How are they divided? 51. Give examples of cardinals.—52. Of ordinals. 53. What is a pronoun? Give me an example. 54. What is meant by the correlative or antecedent of a pronoun? What must it be? 55. How are pronouns divided? 56. Which are the Personal Pronouns? Which is

- I is called the pronoun of the first person, which is the person speaking.
- Thou, the pronoun of the second person, denotes the person spoken to or addressed.
- He and she are pronouns of the third person, denoting the person spoken of.
- It, a pronoun of the third person, denotes the thing spoken of.
- 57. The Relative Pronouns are, who, which, that, as.
- They are so called, because their reference to their correlative is generally more direct and immediate than that of the other pronouns.
- Thus, in the sentence, "The scholar who disobeys the master deserves punishment," the reference of who to scholar is so obvious and immediate that the correlative cannot be mistaken.
- Who is applied to persons; which, to inanimate things; that and as, indiscriminately to persons and things; as, has generally the word such for its correlative.
- What and whether are Compound Relatives, what being equivalent to that which, or thou which; whether denoting which of the two.
- Whoever and whatever are simply the relatives who and what, with the affix ever added, in order to render their application indefinite.
- Who, which, and what, when used to ask a question, are commonly called Interrogative Pronouns.
- 58. The Adjective Pronouns are divided into three kinds, viz: Demonstrative, Distributive, and Indefinite.
 - The Demonstrative Pronouns are this, that, and their plurals, these, those. They are used to point out emphatically the objects to which they refer.
 - The Distributive Pronouns are, each, every, either, and neither. They denote the persons or things which make up a number, as taken separately or distributively.
 - The Indefinite Pronouns are some, other, another, any, and such. Another is other with the indefinite article an prefixed.

VERB.

59. A Verb is a word which affirms or asserts; as, strikes, walks, is.

the pronoun of the first person?—The second?—The third? 57. Which are the relative pronouns? Why are they so called? Give an example. To what is who applied? Which are the compound relatives? What is the effect of ever at the end of who and what? When are who and what called Interrogative Pronouns? 58. How are the Adjective pronouns divided? Which are Demonstrative?—Distributive?—Indefinite? 59. What is a verb? Give an example. 60.

Thus, in the sentences "John walks;" "James strikes the table;" "The boy is idle;" walks, strikes, and is are verbs.

- 60. As the noun is the word in a sentence which names the thing about which we speak, so the verb is the word which asserts or declares what we say concerning it.
 - 61. Verbs are divided into Transitive and Intransitive.
- 62. Transitive Verbs denote that kind of action which passes from the agent to something else.
- 63. Intransitive Verbs denote that kind of action or state of being which is limited to the agent or subject.

Thus beat, love, kill, are transitive verbs, as expressing a kind of action by which the agent affects something besides himself. Sit, sleep, stand, are intransitive verbs, as denoting simple being, or action limited to the subject or agent.

In dictionaries, the words active and neuter are invariably used to distinguish the transitive and intransitive verbs. It is customary in grammars to use the terms transitive and intransitive, partly because they are considered more accurate and expressive; and partly because the word active is used in grammars, in opposition to the word passive. The distinction between these two words will be considered in that part of this work which treats of the inflections of verbs. In the mean time, the pupil will suffer no inconvenience by using the word active as synonymous with transitive, and neuter as synonymous with intransitive. The uniform practice in dictionaries and in general literature has authorised such a use of the words.

ADVERB.

- 64. An Adverb is a word which qualifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb; as, "He reads well; she is very gentle; I will go most willingly."
- 65. Adverbs seem to perform the same office to verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs, that adjectives perform to nouns.

Thus, in the sentence "Cicero was eloquent," the term eloquent, being a word used to modify the noun Cicero, is an adjective; but in the sentence "Cicero was exceedingly eloquent," the term exceedingly, being a word used to modify the adjective eloquent, is an adverb. In

Explain the office of the verb. 61. How are verbs divided? 62. What are Transitive Verbs? 63. What are Intransitive Verbs? Give examples. How are the terms active and neuter used in dictionaries? 64. What is an Adverb? 65. How is it used? Give examples. 66. What does

like manner, in the sentence "Cæsar fought bravely," "bravely," as modifying the verb "fought," is an adverb.

66. The adverb serves merely to express in one word what may always be expressed by two or more words. Thus, had we not possessed such words as here, there thither, eloquently, we could have expressed the ideas conveyed by them, by using the equivalent phrases, in this place, in that place, to that place, in an eloquent manner.

PREPOSITION.

67. A *Preposition* is a word used to show the relation which one thing bears to another; as, "Death entered *into* the world by sin."

Prepositions are so called from their being generally put before other words.

- 68. The Prepositions in most common use are,—About, above, across, after, against, along, amid, amidst, among, amongst, around, at, before, behind, below, beneath, besides, between, betwixt, beyond, but, by, down, except, for, from, in, into, near, nigh, of, off, on, out, over, round, save, through, throughout, to, towards, under, underneath, up, upon, with, within, without.
- 69. A number of prepositions which are of great use in modifying the words to which they are prefixed, are called *inseparable* prepositions, from their never being used but as parts of other words. Such are, a, be, con, mis, pre, re, sub; as in afoot, befall, conjoin, mishap, prefix, regain, subtract, &c.

CONJUNCTION.

- 70. A Conjunction is a word used to connect words and sentences.
- 71. The Conjunctions in most general use are, and, also, either, or; neither, nor; though, yet, but, however; for, that; because, since; therefore, wherefore, then; if, unless, lest.

an adverb express? 67. What is a Preposition? Why so called? 69. Which are the prepositions in most common use? 70. What is a conjunction? 71. Which are the conjunctions in most common use?

INTERJECTION.

72. An Interjection is a word used to express sudden emotion.

They are so called, because they are generally thrown in between the parts of a sentence without any reference to the structure of the other parts of it.

73. The following are the chief Interjections:—Ah, alas; pshaw, fie; ha, ha, ha; lo, hush, huzza, O, oh, heigho.

Some verbs, nouns and adjectives, uttered by way of exclamation, in a detached manner, are classed among interjections: as, hail! welcome! strange!

74. The learner will perceive, by the above classification of the words of our language, that the Noun is the principal part of speech; that it is the only one which expresses a distinct idea without the help of any other word; and that all the other parts of speech are employed to denote the actions, qualities, and relations of the Noun. The whole subject might be familiarly treated thus. Nouns are the names of persons or things; adjectives express the qualities of those persons or things; verbs express their actions; adverbs, the modifications of those qualities or actions; prepositions express the relations of nouns, and conjunctions, their connections. Pronouns supply the places of nouns, to avoid the inconvenience of repeating them too frequently; Articles limit their signification; and finally, Interjections express the sudden emotions of persons, of whom the names are nouns. Thus, all the other parts of speech have a direct relation to the noun; and derive all their importance from this relation. By keeping this important fact constantly in view, the pupil will find the task of understanding grammar greatly simplified. Even in performing the following exercises on the classification of words, he will frequently be enabled to determine, without hesitation, what part of speech

^{72.} What is an Interjection? Why so called? 73. Which are the chief interjections? Give examples of other parts of speech occasionally used as interjections. 74. Which is the principal part of speech? Describe the offices of the other parts of speech with relation to the noun. How may you distinguish the parts of speech? What gives law to

any word is, by inquiring how it stands related to the noun.

Some words, from the different ways in which they are used, belong sometimes to one part of speech, sometimes to another.*

The same word must originally have been, both in import and use, only one part of speech. Present usage, however, gives laws to grammar, not original import.

The chief words, which belong sometimes to one part of speech, sometimes to another, are, as, but, either, neither, much, more, most, that.

As is used both as a relative pronoun and as an adverb. Thus, "Only such punishment is inflicted as serves the end of government." "As great as Cæsar."

But is used both as a preposition and conjunction. Thus, "Nothing but religion can give true peace." "John lives in London; but James resides in Edinburgh."

Either and neither are used both as adjectives of number and as conjunctions. Thus, "Of these two books I will take either." "Either speak truth or keep silence."

Much, more, and most, are used both as adjectives and adverbs. Thus, "In most towns much money has been collected, but more ought to have been collected for so good a purpose." "Most certainly; but I am much gratified with what I have got, the more so as I did not expect it."

A word that can properly be added to the phrase, Iam thinking of, or

I am thinking of the, is a Noun.

A word that will take the noun thing or things after it, is an Adjective of quality.

A word that will take before it, the pronouns I, thou, he, or we, is a

Words that answer to the questions how? how much? when? or where? joined to a verb or an adjective, are Adverbs.

Prepositions may be distinguished from conjunctions by their admitting after them the words me, us, him, them, &c.

grammar? What are the chief words which belong sometimes to one part of speech, sometimes to another? What is said of as?—but?—either, and neither?—much, more, and most?—that? How do you distinguish a Noun?—An adjective of quality?—A Verb?—Adverb?—Preposition?

^{*}The following simple directions have been given for enabling the pupil to distinguish the principal parts of speech; though it is better when he is able to distinguish them by a knowledge of their discriminating properties without the help of rules:—

That is used as a demonstrative pronoun, a relative pronoun, and a conjunction. Thus, "I will thank you for that book." "I will thank you for the book that is beside you." "I beg that you will hand me the book."

EXERCISES ON THE CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS.

 The Noun.—Give instances of words which belong to the class Nouns.

Distinguish between Common and Proper Nouns in the following sentences:—

London is the chief city of Britain.

The first king of Israel was Saul, the son of Kish.

The children of Israel left Egypt under the guidance of Moses: they received the law at Mount Sinai, and sojourned forty years in the wilderness of Arabia. Joshua was their conductor across the river Jordan into Canaan, the promised land.

The first twelve emperors of Rome are distinguished by the name of Cæsars. The first of them was Julius Cæsar, a man equally illustrious as a general, a historian, and an orator. He was alike the Alexander, the Demosthenes, and the Xenophon of his age.

2. The Adjectives.—Distinguish between Nouns and Adjectives in the following sentences:—

Diligent scholars learn rapidly.

Obedient children are dear to their parents.

Verdant fields appear at a distance.

Flowers beautiful and fragrant were offered to her.

King Alfred was good and great.

The river is deep, dark, and rapid.

Distinguish between Abstract Nouns and Adjectives in the following sentences:—

Happy are merciful men, for they shall obtain mercy.

The meekness of Moses, the patience of Job, and the wisdom of Solomon, have been celebrated in every age. We should be meek, and wise, and patient, like them.

In warm weather, we complain of warmth; in cold weather, we complain of coldness.

The external elegance of that mansion is surpassed by the elegant nature of its internal arrangements.

There have been many excellent and generous men; but how rare is such generosity and excellence as Howard displayed!

Distinguish when the following words, Christian, cunning, evil, good, missionary, divine, original, are Nouns, and when Adjectives, in the following instances:—

The Christian religion is little understood by many a man who calls himself a Christian.

The enemy was cunning; but his cunning was nothing to that of our commander.

How can ye that are evil do good? but, alas! good men often do evil. He went out as a missionary to the heathen; but he had little of the missionary spirit:—a great divine, he had little of the divine spirit either of the original missionaries, or of the great Original of our holy faith.

3. The Numeral Adjective.—Distinguish Nouns, Adjectives denoting quality, and Adjectives of number, in the following sentences:—

A good boy loves his book.

An open countenance inspires confidence.

The Forth, the Tay, the Tweed, and the Clyde, are the four principal rivers of Scotland.

Many a flower is born to blush unseen. That new palace is not so picturesque as this old castle.

Some of the greatest personages of antiquity were men of one virtue and a thousand crimes.

The parrot is a foreign bird, of beautiful plumage. It can be taught to pronounce a great many words and even sentences. But all its agreeable qualities are counterbalanced by that inclination which it has to gnaw and destroy every thing you put within its reach. This bird is found in flocks in the woods of several warm countries. It makes a nest in any hollow tree which it can find, and it lays but few eggs, commonly only two or three.

4. The Pronoun.—What do the Pronouns he, she, his, her, it, and they, refer to respectively in the following sentences?

The huntsman wished his dogs to take the water. At first they refused: but at last they crossed it, he following on horseback.

The street was originally named after a lady of rank; but, as she did not choose that it should bear her name, the name was changed into that of a famous general: he, however, was never consulted in the matter.

Point out the Antecedents or Correlatives of who, which, that, and as, in the following sentences.

The bark which is stripped from the oak is used in tanning leather. Some oaks are said to be older than the oldest man that ever lived. The fruit which grows upon this tree is called an acorn. There are men in some countries who eat acorns. In this country, the only animals that now feed on them are pigs and poultry; though such men as originally peopled Britain were glad to use them.

Supply the blanks in the following passages with Relative Pronouns, distinguishing when who, and when which, ought to be used.

The fuel is most commonly used in the British Islands is coal. It is dug out of deep pits in the earth by men are called miners. Long ago, the foul air collects under ground used sometimes to be set on fire by the lamps of the miners, and to blow up, to the great hazard of the lives of all were in the mine; but this has seldom occurred since the celebrated Sir Humphry Davy devoted much attention to the subject, found out a kind of gauze keeps in the flame, and prevents it from igniting the foul air.

Supply the blanks in the following story with appropriate Pronouns:

Three friends entered into partnership; Charles gave the shop as contribution to general stock; David agreed to manage the busitime and talents as contribution; Edward ness; thus giving advanced the money to buy goods for filling . . After carrying on the business for some time in a manner that reflected credit on the manager, and brought gain to all, suddenly lost both shop and goods by a fire that broke out in neighbourhood; and it came to be a question among the partners which of had incurred the greatest loss. "We have all lost equally," argued David, "for each contributed equally to general stock, and all is gone." "Not at all," replied Charles; "I have lost shop, certainly, and Edward has lost money; but , David, have lost only your time: talents for management, formed the other part of your contribution, still remain unimpaired; nay, are improved by the exercise they have received in conducting business. You are, therefore, not to be considered as a loser to the same extent as Edward and have been, but rather as one is a debtor to the firm." It is for the ingenious reader to determine which of the parties had the advantage in this argument.

5. The Verb.—Distinguish Nouns, Adjectives denoting quality, Adjectives of number, Pronouns, and Verbs, in the following sentences:—

John is a tall boy: he has three sisters.

Our master strikes the table three times.

That horse gallops at the rate of twelve miles an hour.

The sun sets.

Our hearts are deceitful.

The diligent scholar surpasses his competitors, and stands leader in his class.

An idle boy grieves his teacher, disappoints his parents, and ruins himself.

I love my parents, my preceptor, and my lesson: you are idle; you neglect your duty; you deserve punishment.

Distinguish Verbs from Adjectives in the following sentences:-

The meadows are joyful: the little hills rejoice.

The shadows of the long night lengthen about us.

We mourn at the mournful tidings.

The whole family are sad: their sadness saddens us.

Distinguish between Transitive and Intransitive Verbs in the following instances:—

Afflict, arise, begin, beg, bite, bleed, cleave, creep, drink, eat, fall, fly, go, grow, hang, hear, know, lie, ride, ring, rive, run, scatter, seek, sell, shave, shine, sink, smite, stride, strew, swim, take, tear, think, throw, walk, wax, weave, weep, win, word, write.

In the following sentences, distinguish when the word in italics is a Noun, when an Adjective, and when a Verb.

Thy friends are in the garden: they walk from walk to walk.

So great is the heat given out by the burning pines, that they heat the whole surrounding air.

The fight still continues: they breathed a little, but now they fight again.

So rich and fragrant, the poets tell us, is the *smell* of the spicy fields of Arabia Felix, that the mariners who navigate the coast *smell* them far out at sea.

This damp night might be expected to cast a damp over us; yet we damp not our ardour. A calm has succeeded the storm, and again the ocean is calm. It is proper that we calm our fears also.

If you labour dillgently you will not lose your labour.

They hope to gain wealth, and the hope of gain sweetens labour.

They are of humble rank, but they rank high in the estimation of their fellows. This flower is rank.

He should moderate his wishes, and be content with moderate gains.

6. Adverbs.—In each of the following sentences there is an Adverb: point it out; and state, in each case, which part of speech it qualifies, whether an Adjective, Verb, or other Adverb.

The master twice corrected John.

Your lesson is not sufficiently prepared.

The boy who lately entered school is now at the head of his class.

You act foolishly; your conduct is truly mournful.

That story is not true.

That is not very wisely said; you certainly deserve punishment.

This is too bad; such misconduct will very speedily find you out.

7.—Sentences in which all parts of speech occur, to be parsed with reference to the classification of the words.

God bestowed on man the faculty of speech for great and important purposes: but, alas! we frequently pervert it to the worst purposes.

Alexander the Great had a high esteem for knowledge and learning. He used to say, "He was more obliged to Aristotle, his tutor, for his learning, than to Philip, his father, for his life!" O what a pity he devoted his life so little to the learning he so greatly loved!

The tongue of the slanderer is a fire which blackens whatever it touches—which directs its fury on the good grain equally as on the chaff,—which, wherever it rages, produces nothing but devastation and ruin. O how vile a character is the slanderer! The tongue is an inestimable blessing; but he perverts and prostitutes it.

Words descriptive of natural sounds generally bear some resemblance in their sound to what they represent. We call a certain bird the cuckoo, from the sound which it emits. We say of the wind, at one time, that it whistles, at another, it roars. We say of serpents, they hiss; of flies, they buzz; of falling timber, it crashes. Of the stream we say, it flows; of the hail, it rattles. In all which instances there is obviously a manifest resemblance between the word and the thing signified.

At noontide hour
The imprison'd inmates of the school rush forth,
And sport the happy interval away.
Upon the sward they gaily spread their stores,
And, happy! feed upon the simple fare.

In midst of them poor Redbreast hops unharm'd, For they have read, or heard, and wept to hear The story of the Children in the Wood, And many a crumb to Robin now they throw.

O Caledonia! stern and wild,
Meet nurse for a poetic child!
Land of brown heath and shaggy wood,
Land of the mountain and the flood,
Land of my sires! what mortal hand
Can e'er untie the filial band
That knits me to thy rugged strand!

8. Instances of the same word used as different parts of speech.

My book is as good, as large, and as carefully kept, as any in the school. It is such as the master is sure to approve.

Many men are obliged to be content with such accommodations as they can get, not such as they wish.

He hath not grieved me but in part. He has injured nothing belonging to me but the basket; but he has destroyed the whole of your fishing-tackle.

I will take either road at your pleasure. Either you or I must do it. Do you say that neither is attentive? neither the boy nor the girl? I cannot go beyond the word of the Lord, to do less or more.

As the sun sinks, the stars appear more and more; but more stars are invisible than all that yet appear.

He will love most who has most forgiven.

Read that book again.

Read the book that I gave you.

Read that book, that you may become wise.

I tell you that that man is innocent.

Blessed is the man that considereth the poor.

Eat that you may live, and live that you may do good.

Forgive us our trespass, as we forgive them that trespass against us. That you should have reason to mourn, is grievous to me.

That star that shines above us, for as little as it seems to be, is larger than either the moon or the earth: it is but a sparkling diamond in apparent magnitude; but in real magnitude, and probably, also, in use, it is a world.

ADDITIONAL EXERCISES.

The inconvenience which I have suffered in giving instruction in rhetoric and composition to such of my pupils as have never been much accustomed to write grammatical exercises, has induced me, in preparing this work, to furnish a large number of exercises to be written. To render these exercises as easy and agreeable as possible, I resort to the use of pictures. The aid which these pleasing objects give the pupil, by suggesting ideas to his mind, has been rendered so apparent to me, by the use of the little volume entitled "Easy Exercises in Composition," that I am fully convinced of the propriety of using them, not only in the scholar's first attempts at composing themes, but in the more simple process of writing grammatical exercises. This is the only apology which I deem it necessary to offer to my brethren and friends, the instructors of youth, for so extraordinary a proceeding as the introduction of pictures into a practical treatise of English Grammar.

75. As the exercises to be written by the pupil should be not merely detached words or phrases, but complete sentences, it is necessary here to explain what is meant by a sentence.

76. A sentence is a collection of words so arranged as to form a complete proposition. In order to form a complete proposition, it is necessary, in the first place, to have a *subject*, or, in other words, *something to speak or write about*; and, in the next place, to speak or write something about that *subject*. The *subject*, therefore, is that concerning which something is spoken or written. That which is spoken or written concerning the *subject* is called the *predicate*.

Thus, the phrase "A good boy," does not constitute a complete sentence, because it contains no predicate; but the expression, "A good boy loves his book," constitutes a complete sentence, because it contains both a subject and a predicate.

77. The *subject*, being a *thing*, must, necessarily, be expressed by a noun, or a word or words equivalent in signification to a noun. Thus, in the sentence above, the words "A good boy," form the *subject*.

78. The *predicate* must always be a verb, or a clause containing a verb, and equal in amount to a verb. Thus, in the sentence above, "loves his book," is the *predicate*.

^{76.} What is a sentence? What is necessary to form a complete proposition? What is meant by the term Subject?—By Predicate? Give examples of an imperfect and a perfect sentence. 77. What must the Subject be?—78. The Predicate? 79. How may a sentence be rendered imperfect?

79. A sentence is imperfect when it contains a word which implies that an additional clause is required to complete the sense.

By examining the following sentences and parts of sentences with reference to their explanation, and pointing out which among them are complete, and which are not, the pupil will readily learn to distinguish between them, and to apply the distinction in writing grammatical exercises.

A great hero. A great hero is not always a good man. The boy who studies. The boy who studies diligently. The boy who studies diligently may hope to become a good scholar. A house built of stone. The house is built of stone. When Washington arrived. When Washington arrived, the enemy retreated. The days being short. The days being short, afforded little time for amusement.

EXERCISES TO BE WRITTEN BY THE PUPIL.

[In writing the following exercises, the pupil is not required to confine himself to the parts of speech enumerated under each, but he may use others also.]



Evening Sport.

Write a number of short sentences, the ideas being suggested by the above picture, the words employed including nouns, articles, and nerbs.

MODEL.

The boy plays. The father observes. The mother smiles. The sister enjoys the sport. A pipe lies on the table. The sister leans on the table.



Chasing a Butterfly.

Write sentences relating to the objects in this picture, introducing nouns, articles, adjectives, and verbs.



The hand-organ Player.

Write sentences relating to this picture, including nouns, articles, adjectives, verbs, and pronouns.



Autumn.

Write sentences relating to this picture, including nouns, verbs, adjectives, and prepositions.



The Cottage Girl.

Write sentences including nouns, verbs, adjectives, and conjunctions.



Chinchillas.

Write sentences including nouns, verbs, adjectives, articles, and interjections.



Playing with the Parrot and the Dog.

Write sentences including nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adjective pronouns.



A Ride.

Write sentences including nouns, verbs, adjectives, and relative pronouns.



The Village Inn.

Write sentences including nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adjective pronouns.



Write sentences including all the different parts of speech, some being introduced in one sentence and some in another.

II. INFLECTION OF WORDS.

80. Inflection is that change of termination which words undergo to express their various relations.

Thus s in boys, er in harder, se in whose, ed in killed, are inflections of boy, hard, who, and kill.

Inflections, though now so incorporated with words as not to be used apart from them, appear to have been, originally, separate words, significant of the circumstances intended.

81. The parts of speech which admit of inflection, are, the *Noun*, the *Adjective*, the *Pronoun*, the *Verb*, and the *Adverb*.

INFLECTION OF NOUNS.

82. Nouns admit of inflection to express Number, Gender, and Case.

I. NUMBER.

- 83. Common Nouns, only, admit of Number.
- 84. There are two Numbers, the Singular and the Plural.
- 85. The Singular expresses only one of a class; the Plural, any number more than one.
- 86. The singular is always expressed by the noun in its simple form; as, book, fox.
- 87. The plural is generally formed by adding s, or es, to the singular; as, book, books; fox, foxes.

The nouns which take es are chiefly those which end in x, ch soft; sh, ss, and in i and o, preceded by a consonant;* as, fox, foxes; church, churches; brush, brushes; class, classes; alkali, alkalies; hero, heroes. O pure, that is, o preceded by a vowel, and ch hard, take s only; as, folio, folios; patriarch, patriarchs.

^{*} Modern usage is rather in favour of nouns in o, though preceded by a consonant, following the general rule. Thus, the plurals of canto, grotto, junto, portico, quarto, solo, tyro, are now generally written cantos, &c.

^{80.} What is inflection? Give an example. 81. What parts of speech admit of inflection? 82. How are nouns inflected? 83. What nouns have number? 84. How many? 85. How distinguished? 86. How is the singular expressed? 87. How is the plural generally formed? What

 The termination f, or fe, is often changed into ves; as, calf, calves; knife, knives.

The following words, however, follow the general rule, viz., brief, chief, fief, grief, handkerchief; hoof, proof, reproof, roof; dwarf, scarf, wharf; gulf; turf; cliff, sheriff, skiff, whiff; cuff, muff, puff, ruff, snuff, stuff; fife, strife; safe.

2. Y, preceded by a consonant, is changed into ies; as, city, cities; but y preceded by a vowel, follows the general rule, as also y in proper names, used as common nouns, though preceded by a consonant; thus, joy, joys; Henry, the Henrys. Money, monies; chimney, chimnies, are exceptions, sanctioned by good authority.

 Some nouns take the Saxon termination, en, in the formation of the plural; as.

Alderman	Aldermen.	Ox Oxen.
Child	Children.	Statesman Statesmen.
Footman	Footmen.	Woman Women.
Man	Men.	Workman Workmen.

4. Some vary the plural to express a difference of meaning.

Thus, brother makes brothers, when denoting sons of the same parent; and brethren, when denoting persons of the same society or profession; die, a stamp for coining, makes dies; die, a little cube used in games, dice; genius makes geniuses, when signifying persons of genius; genii, when denoting aërial spirits; index makes indexes, when it expresses a table of contents, and indices when it denotes the exponent of an algebraic quantity; penny makes pennies, when it is used for real coins; pence, for their value in computation.*

5. Nouns which have been adopted, without alteration, from foreign languages, generally retain their original plurals. The principal words of this class are the following:

FROM THE GREEK.

Antithesis antitheses.	Ellipsis ellipses.
Automaton automata.	Hypothesis hypotheses.
Basis bases.	Metamorphosis metamorphoses.
Criterion criteria.	Phenomenon phenomena.
Crisis crises.	Thesis theses.

^{*} To this list it is common to add fish, which is said to make fish in the plural, when quantity is to be denoted; fishes, when we speak of number; and pea, which is said to make peas, to signify the seeds, as distinct objects; pease, the seeds in mass. But it is probably better to consider fish, when it signifies quantity, and pease, as collective nouns singular.

nouns take es in the plural? (1) What change is made in nouns ending in f, or fe? What are the exceptions? (2) What remarks are made on nouns ending in y? /(3) Give examples of the Saxon termination in en. (4) For what is the plural sometimes varied? Give examples. (5) What is the rule for nouns of foreign origin? Give examples from the Greek—

FROM THE LATIN.

Animalculum animalcula.	Genus genera.
	9
Apex apices.	Ignis-fatuus ignes-fatui.
Appendix appendices.	Lamina laminæ.
Arcanum arcana.	Magus magi.
Axis axes.	Medium medii.
Calx calces.	Memorandum memoranda
Datum data.	Radius radii.
Desideratum desiderata.	Stimulus stimuli.
Effluvium effluvia.	Stratum strata.
Erratum errata.	Vertex vertices.
Focus foci.	Vortex vortices.
FROM THE	HEBREW.

Cherub	Cherubim.*	Seraph	Seraphim.

FROM THE FRENCH.

Beau	beaux.	Monsieur .	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	messieurs.
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FROM THE ITALIAN.

Banditto S	banditti.	Dilettante dilettanti. Virtuoso virtuosi.
1		

6. Some nouns are entirely anomalous in the formation of their plurals; thus,—

Foot feet.	Cow kine.t
Goose geese.	Sow swine.
Louse lice.	Tooth teeth.
Mouse mice.	

- Some nouns are used alike in both numbers; as, deer, horse, sheep, swine.
- Proper names have necessarily no plural; but there are also some common names which want the plural. Of this kind are names of grains; as, rye, wheat; names of metals; as, iron, gold; names of

^{* &}quot;Cherubim and Seraphim are real Hebrew plurals; but such is the propensity in men to form regular inflections in language, that these words are used in the singular, with regular plurals, cherubims, seraphims. In like manner, the Hebrew singulars, cherub and seraph, have obtained regular plurals." — Webster.

[†] If kine was originally cowen, and swine, sowen, which their sound would seem to render not improbable, they belong to exception 3d, rather than to exception 6th.

Give examples from the Latin—the Hebrew—the French—the Italian. (6) Give examples of anomalies.—(7) Of nouns used in both numbers.

fossils; as, marl, clay; and names of abstract and moral qualities; as, gravity, benevolence.*

There are some common nouns, on the other hand, which have no singular; for example, nouns expressive of what nature or art has made double; as, scissors, snuffers; and nouns descriptive of objects which are not easily conceived without a reference to a plurality of parts; as, annals, archives, vespers.

There are also some nouns having a plural termination, which, from their being expressive of either unity or plurality, admit of being used in either number, according to the view of their meaning present to the mind of the writer or speaker, when he employs them. The following are those most commonly used:—

Alms,	Hydrostatics,	Metaphysics,	Pneumatics,
Amends,	Hysterics,	News,	Politics,
Billiards,	Mathematics,	Odds,	Riches,
Economics,	Means,	Optics,	Statistics,
Ethics,	Measles,	Pains,	Tactics.
Hydraulics,	Mechanics,	Physics,	

II. GENDER.

- 88. There are three Genders, the *Masculine*, the *Feminine*, and the *Neuter*.
- 89. The masculine distinguishes male animals; the feminine, females; the neuter, things destitute of sex.

As there are only two sexes, there ought to be but two genders,—
the masculine and the feminine. But it has been found convenient
to add a third, the neuter.† This word signifies neither, and there-

- * It is to be observed, however, that nouns of the above classes take a plural to express varieties of the substances denoted by them. Thus, we can say, wheats, golds, clays, gravities, when we wish to describe different kinds of wheat, &c.
- † All things inanimate are considered as neuter, except in cases where, by an easy analogy, the imagination conceives of them as animated, and assigns sex to them. This mode of giving life and sex to things inanimate, is nearly peculiar to our language, and forms one of its striking beauties. But it is not easy to reduce the usage of the language, on this point, to fixed rules. Indeed, fancy, more than nature or reason, may be traced in the regulation of the matter; and the same object may be found described as sometimes of one gender, and sometimes of another. The nearest approach to uniformity of usage is in the words, sun, death, time, and names of great rivers, which take the masculine; and in the words, moon, morn, ship, earth, which take the feminine gender.

What remark is made on proper nouns?—On some common nouns?—On nouns used in either number? Give examples. 88. How many genders

fore intimates that the objects to which it is applied are neither of the masculine nor of the feminine gender.

The English is almost the only language which, in the distribution of Gender, follows the order of nature.

- 90. Some nouns, which are applicable to either sex, are said to be of the common gender;* as, parent, cousin.
 - 91. There are three modes of distinguishing sex.
- 92. (1.) Distinction of sex is most commonly expressed by a change of termination to denote the feminine gender.
- 93. The feminine terminations most frequently used, are, ess, ix, a, ina, and ine.

Originally, the termination ess was simply added to the masculine; but, latterly, the feminine, thus formed, has, for convenience of utterance, been variously contracted.

The following words still retain the whole masculine: -

Masc.	Fem.	Mase.	Fem.
Author	authoress.	Mayor	mayoress.
Baron	baroness.	Patron	patroness.
Count	countess.	Peer	peeress.
Dauphin	dauphiness.	Poet	poetess.
Deacon	deaconess.	Priest	priestess.
Giant	giantess.	Prior	prioress.
Heir	heiress.	Prophet	prophetess.
Host	hostess.	Shepherd	shepherdess.
Jew	Jewess.	Tutor	tutoress.
Lion	lioness.	Viscount	viscountess.

The following have undergone contraction: -

Masc.	Fem.	Masc.	Fem.
Abbott	abbess.†	Adulterer	adultress.
Actor	actress.	Ambassador	ambassadress

* The appellation "common" gender is sufficiently descriptive of such a word as parents (in the plural), which necessarily includes both the masculine and the feminine. But for the singular, parent, and for such words as cousin, &c., "either" gender would be a more correct appellation.

† These feminines must have been, originally, abbotess, actoress, adulteress, &c. Duchess, and marchioness, have not been formed from

duke, and marquis, but from duch and marchion.

are there? 89. How are the genders distinguished? What is said of the English language? 90. What is meant by the common gender? 91. How many modes of distinguishing sex are there? 92. Which is the first and most common? 93. Which are the most usual feminine terminations? Give examples of those words which retain the whole

Masc.	Fem.	Masc.	Fem.
Arbiter	arbitress.	Lad	lass.
Benefactor	benefactress.	Marquis	marchioness.
Chanter	chantress.	Master	mistress.
Conductor .	conductress.	Protector	protectress.
Duke	duchess.	Seamster	seamsfress.
Elector	electress.	Songster	songstress.
Emperor	empress.	Sorcerer	sorceress.
Governor	governess.	Tiger	tigress.
Hunter	huntress.	Traitor	traitress.

The words which express the feminine by the termination ix, are of Latin origin, thus:—

Masc.	Fem.	Masc.	Fem.
Administrator.	administratrix.	Executor	 executrix.
Director	directrix.	Testator.	 testatrix.

Those which express the feminine by the terminations a, ina, and ine, are also of foreign origin, and are few in number, thus:—

Masc.	Fem.	Masc.	Fem.
Czar	czarina.	Margrave	margravine.
Hero	heroine.	Sultan	sultana.
Landgrave	landgravine.		

94. (2.) Distinction of sex is also expressed by a different word being employed to denote the feminine, thus:—

Masc.	Fem.	Masc.	Fem.
Beau	. belle.	Gaffer	gammer.
Boy	. girl.	Gander	goose.
Bridegroom	. bride.	Hart	roe.
Brother	sister.	Horse	mare.
Buck	. doe.	Husband	wife.
Bull	. cow.	King	queen.
Bullock	. heifer.	Lord	lady.
Colt	. filly.	Man	. woman.
Drake	. duck.	Monk	nun.
Earl	. countess.	Nephew	niece.
Father	. mother.	Ram	

masculine. Of those which have undergone contraction. Of those which express the feminine by the termination ix. Of those which express the feminine by the termination in a, ina, and ine. 94. (2.) What is the second mode of distinguishing sex? Give examples.

ETYMOLOGY.

Masc.	Fem.	Masc.	Fem.
Sloven	slut.	Uncle	aunt.
Son	daughter.	Widower	widow.
Stag	hind.	Wizard	witch.

95. (3.) Distinction of sex is also sometimes expressed by prefixing a separate word to indicate the gender, thus:—

Masc. Fem.	Masc. Fem.
He-goat she-goat.	Cock-sparrow hen-sparrow.
Man-servant . maid-servant.	Male-child female-child.

III. CASE.

96. There are three Cases, — the Nominative, the Possessive, and the Objective.

As the only relation of nouns which is expressed in English by a change of termination is that of ownership, or possession, there are, strictly speaking, only two cases, the noun in its simple form, and the noun with the possessive termination; as, boy, boy's.

97. The noun is in the *nominative* case when it is the name of the person or thing which acts, or is spoken of.

98. The noun is in the *possessive* case when it expresses ownership, or possession.

99. The noun is in the *objective* case when it is the name of the person or thing which is the object or end of an action or movement.

Thus, in the sentence — "James strikes John's horse," James, as the agent, is in the nominative case; John's, as expressing the relation of ownership, is in the possessive; and horse, being the name of the object,* is in the objective.

100. The *nominative* and *objective* are both expressed by the noun in its simple form.

^{*} When a noun does any thing, it is called the agent, and when something is done to it, it is called the object.

^{95. (3).} What is the third mode of distinguishing sex? Give examples. 96. How many cases are there? 97. What is meant by the nominative case? 98. What is meant by the possessive case? 99. What is meant by the objective case? Give an example of each, in the same sentence. 100. How are the nominative and objective expressed?

101. The possessive is formed, in the singular, by adding s, with an apostrophe before it ('s);* as, Father, Father's.

102. The *possessive* is formed, in the plural, by adding only an apostrophe; as, *Fathers*, *Fathers*.

When the noun ends in s, ss, ce, or any other termination which does not easily admit of a hissing sound after it, the possessive is formed by simply annexing the apostrophe without the letter s; as, "for righteousness' sake, for conscience' sake."

When the plural does not end in s, the possessive plural is formed in the same manner as the possessive singular; as, men, men's.

103. A noun is thus declined: -

	Singular.	Plural.	S	Singular.	Plural.
Nom.	Father	Fathers	Nom.	Man	Men
Poss.	Father's	Fathers'	Poss.	Man's	Men's
Obj.	Father	Fathers	Obj.	Man	Men

INFLECTION OF ADJECTIVES.

104. The adjectives which admit of inflection, are such as denote qualities susceptible of increase, and a few Numerals.

105. Adjectives which denote qualities susceptible of increase, admit of inflection to express comparison.

106. There are three degrees of comparison,—the Positive, the Comparative, and the Superlative.

107. The *positive* is expressed by the adjective in its simple state; as, *hard*.

^{*} It has been supposed that the termination ('s) of the English possessive, is a contraction for the possessive pronoun his. Thus, "John's book" has been said to be an abbreviation of "John his book." But this opinion is evidently erroneous. The termination ('s) cannot always be resolved into the pronoun his. We cannot resolve "queen's crown" into "queen his crown," or "children's bread" into "children his bread." The fact seems to be, that the English possessive termination is one of the parts of our language which we have preserved from the Saxon. The casal termination of the Saxon possessive is es, or is; as appears in such phrases as "Godes sight," "kingis crown." The progress of change in the termination seems to have been es, is, 's.

^{101.} How is the possessive formed in the singular? 102. How in the plural? — How when the noun ends in s, ss, or ce? — When the plural does not end in s? 103. How is a noun declined? 104. What adjectives admit of inflection? 105. What adjectives are compared? 106. What are the degrees of comparison? 107, 108, 109. How are

108. The comparative denotes a greater degree of the quality expressed by the positive; as, harder.

109. The superlative denotes the greatest degree of the

quality, expressed by the positive; as, hardest.

110. The *comparative* is generally formed by adding r, or er, to the *positive*; as, safe, safer; tall, taller.

111. The superlative is generally formed by adding st, or

est, to the positive; as, safe, safest; tall, tallest.

112. The following adjectives are compared irregularly: -

Good	better	best.
Bad)	worse	
Evil }	worse	worst.
III)		
	less	
Many ?	more	most
Much		á .
	farther	
	former	
	inner	
	later	
	nearer	
	older or elder	
	outer	
Up	upper	upmost or uppermost.

113. Adjectives are also compared by prefixing the words more and most to the positive; as, gentle, more gentle, most gentle.

It would seem, from the diversity of usage which prevails, that it is left to the ear and taste to determine whether the comparison should be expressed in any particular instance by a change of termination, or by prefixing more and most.

Adjectives of one syllable, and dissyllable adjectives in y and le pure, are generally compared in the former way; adjectives of more than two syllables, and dissyllables which do not end in y or le pure, in the latter.

A few adjectives form their superlative by adding most to the comparative; as, nether, nethermost; lower, lowermost; and a few by

they distinguished? 110,111. How are the comparative and superlative formed? 112. What adjectives are irregular? 113. What is the other mode of comparison? What general rule is given respecting the two modes of comparison? When is most used as a termination?

adding most either to the positive or to the comparative; as, hind, hindmost, or hindermost.

There is also a species of comparison made by adding the affix ish, which lessens the signification of the positive; as, black, blackish; white, whitish.* In this form the adjective is called a diminutive.

INFLECTION OF PRONOUNS.

114. The Pronouns which admit of inflection, are, the *Personal*, the *Relative*, the *Reciprocal*, and the *Demonstrative*.

115. The Personal Pronouns admit of Number, Gender, and Case.

116. They are thus declined: -

First Person Masc. or Fem.		Seco	ond Person M	Tasc. or Fem.
Sing.	Plur.		Sing.	Plur.
Nom. I	We†	Nom.	Thou	Ye or you †
Poss. My or mine	Our or ours	Poss.	Thy or thine	You or yours
<i>Obj.</i> Me	Us	Obj.	Thee	You
Third Pers. 1	Masc.		Third Pe	ers. Fem.
Sing.	Plur.		Sing.	Phur.
Nom. He T	'hey	Nom.	She	They
Poss. His T	heir or theirs	Poss.	Her or hers	Their or theirs
Obj. Him T	hem.	Obj.	Her	Them

^{*} The words, prior, exterior, inferior, superior, ulterior, &c., which have the form of Latin comparatives, are not to be considered comparative in English. Besides wanting the termination of the English comparative, they are not followed by than, its distinguishing mark.

What is indicated by the termination ish? 114. Which pronouns admit of inflection? 115. Of what do the personal pronouns admit? 116. Decline I—Thou—He—She—It. 117. Decline Who—Which.

[†] The idea expressed by the plurals of I and thou, is not the same with that expressed by the plural of nouns. In nouns, the plural is equivalent to the singular repeated. Thus, boys is equal to boy + boy + boy, &c., indefinitely. But we is not equivalent to I+I+I, &c., but to I+others, joined with myself. In the same manner, ye, or you, is not equivalent to thou + thou + thou, &c., but to thou + others, joined with you.

Third Person Neuter.

Nom.	It	They
	Its	
Obj.	It	Them *

117. The Relatives, who and which, are thus declined: -

	Sing.	Plur.		Sing.	Plur.
Nom.	Who	Who	Nom.	Which	Which
Poss.	Whose	Whose	Poss.	Whose†	Whose
Obi.	Whom	Whom	Obi.	Which	Which

- 118. The Relatives that, and as, admit of no variation.
- 119. The Reciprocal Pronoun, self, has, in the plural, selves.
- 120. The Demonstrative Pronouns, this, and that, have, for their plurals, these and those.

The Indefinite Pronoun, another, is the only adjective-pronoun which admits of variation to express case—another's being the possessive case.

INFLECTION OF VERBS.

- 121. Verbs admit of inflection to express Number, Person, and Time.
- 122. Verbs have two Numbers, the Singular, and the Plural; as, he loves, they love.
- 123. Verbs have three Persons, corresponding with those of the personal pronouns; as, *I* love, *thou* lovest, *he* loves.
- 124. The only distinction of Time, or Tense, made by inflection, is into Present and Past; as, I love, I loved.
- * The oblique cases of the personal pronouns are so different, in some instances, from the nominative, that they must have originally belonged to different words.
- † Whatever grammarians may say, it does not admit of doubt, that whose, as the possessive of which, is the general usage of the language.
- † The pupil will recollect that inflection is that change of termination which words undergo to express their various relations. The variations in the signification of verbs, produced by the use of the auxiliary, or generic verbs, are not, strictly speaking, inflections. They will be brought into view under the head of Inflection of Compound Verbs.

^{118.} What is said of that and as? 119. What is said of self? 120. What is said of the Demonstratives? — Of another? 121. What do verbs express by inflection? 122. How many numbers have verbs? 123. How many persons? 124. What distinctions of time are ex-

The present tense denotes that the action, or state, expressed by the verb, is in present time. The past tense denotes that the action, or state, expressed by the verb, is in past time.

125. Verbs also admit of inflection to form the Present and Perfect Participles.

126. The *Present* Participle is formed by adding *ing* to the verb, and denotes that the action is proceeding; as, *loving*, *walking*.

127. The Perfect Participle is formed by adding d, or ed, and denotes that the action is finished; as, loved, walked.

In strictness, the participles are not parts of the verb, as they do not imply affirmation, but are merely adjectives, formed from verbs.

128. Verbs are divided into Regular, Irregular, and Defective.

129. Verbs are regular when the Past tense, and Perfect participle are formed by adding d, or ed, to the present; as,

Present.	Past.	Perj	fect Part.
Love	Loved .	I	loved.
Walk	Walked	V	Valked.

130. Verbs are *Irregular* when the Past tense, and Perfect participle, are formed in any other way than by adding *d*, or *ed*, to the present; as,

Present.	Past.	Perfect Part.
Write	Wrote	Written.
Do	$\dots \mathrm{Did} \dots \dots$	Done.

131. Verbs are *Defective* when they want one or more of these three parts; as,

Present.	Past.	Perfect Part.
May	Might	
Must	Must	

pressed by inflection? What does the Present tense denote?—The Past? 125. What participles are formed by inflection? 126. How is the present participle formed? 127. How is the Perfect formed? 128. How are verbs divided? 129. When are verbs regular? 130. When are verbs Defective?

132. Regular Verbs are thus inflected:
--

TO LOVE.

Present.	Past.	Perfect Part.
Love	Past. Loved	Loved.
	Down out Manage	
Q:-	Present Tense.	Plural.
1st Per I love	ngular 1st	
	vest	
3d Per. He, she,	$\begin{cases} or & \text{it loves}, \\ \text{reth} \end{cases} $ 3d 1	n mi i
or lov	eth $\begin{cases} \dots & 3d \end{cases}$	rer. I ney love.
	D 4 M	
Sing.	Past- $Tense$.	TO:
0	***************************************	Plur.
	•••••••••••••••	
3. He, she, or it l	oved	. 3. They loved.
	Participles.	
Present. Lovin	g	Perfect. Loved.
133. Irregular	Verbs are thus infle	eted:
	, or so are bridge mine	orou.
	TO WRITE.	
Present.	Past.	Perfect Part.
Write	Wrote	
~.	Present Tense.	-
Sing.	*************	Plur.
	•••••••	
	writes, or writeth	
		· or amoy water
	Past Tense.	
Sing.	,	Plur.
	•••••	
3. He, she, or it	wrote	. 3. They wrote.
	Participles.	
Present. Writin		Perfect. Written.

rt.

134. There are, at least, one hundred and seventy irregular verbs in the English language; but there is some uniformity even in their irregularities.

Some of the irregularities are mere abbreviations; as, crept, for creeped; left, for leaved; had, for haved.

135. Some reject ed, in the past tense and perfect participle, from the difficulty of making this termination coalesce with the verb in its simple form; as,

Present.	Past.	Perfect Part
Cost	. cost	cost.
Put	. put	put.
Spread	. spread	spread.

136. Many have ght in the past tense and perfect participle; as,

Present.	Past.	Perfect Part
Bring	brought	brought.
Buy	bought	bought.
Catch	caught	caught.

137. Many retain the old participial termination, en, or n, instead of adopting the modern ed; as,

Present.	Past.	Perfect Par
Freeze	froze	frozen.
Show	showed	shown.
Smite	smote	smitten.

138. Several verbs in *ing* retain the Saxon, *ung*, in the past tense and perfect participle; as,

Present.	Past.	Perfect Part.
Cling	. clung	clung.
-Fling	. flung	flung.
Ring	. rang or rung	rung.
139 The following is	s a list of Irregula	ar Verbe* /

^{*} The most convenient mode of reciting these verbs is for the teacher to give the Present Tense, or simple form of each verb, and the pupil to give the three parts, in answer.

inflected? 134. How many irregular verbs are there in the English language? 135. Give examples of those which reject ed in the past tense, from the difficulty of making this termination coalesce with the verb in its simple form. 136. Give examples of those having ght in the past tense, and perfect participle. 137. Give examples of those retaining the old participial termination in en. 138. Give examples of those which retain the Saxon ung, in the past tense and perfect participle.

ETYMOLOGY.

Present.	Past.	Perfect Part.
Abide	abode	abode
Am	was	been
Arise	arose	arisen
Awake	awoke, or awaked	awaked
Bake	baked	baked, or baken
Bear, to bring forth	bore, or bare	
Bear, to carry	bore, or bare	borne
Beat	beat	beat, or beaten
Become		
Begin	began	
Behold	beheld	· ·
Bend	bent, or bended	•
Bereave	bereft, or bereaved	
Beseech	besought	•
Bid	bade, or bid	
Bind	bound · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
Bite	bit	. ,
Bleed	bled	
Blow	blew	
Break	broke, or break	
Breed	bred	
Bring	brought	
Build	built, or builded	
Burst	burst	
Buy	bought	
Cast	cast	
Catch	caught, or catched	9 ,
Chide	chid	
Choose	chose	
Cleave, to adhere.	clave, or cleaved	
Cleave, to split	clove, clave, cleft	
Cling	clung	
Climb	climbed, or clomb	
Clothe	clothed, or clad	•
Come	came	
Cost	cost	
Crow	crowed, or crew	
Creep	crept	· • ·
Cut	cut	
Dare, to venture	durst, or dared	
Deal	dealt, or dealed	
Dig	dug, or digged	
Do	did	done

Present.	Past.	Perfect Part.
Draw	drew	drawn
Drink	drank	drunk, or drunken
Drive	drove	driven
Dwell	dwelt or dwelled	dwelt, or dwelled
Eat	ate	eaten
Fall	fell	*fallen
Feed	fed	fed
Feel	felt	felt
Fight	fought	fought
Find	found	found
Flee	fled	fled
Fling	flung	flung
Fly	flew	flown
Forbear	forbore, or forbare	forborne
Forget	forgot	forgotten, or forgot
Forsake	forsook	forsaken
Freeze	froze	frozen
Get	got, or gat	gotten, or got
Gild	gilt, or gilded	gilt, or gilded
Gird	girt, or girded	girt, or girded
Give	gave	given
Go	went	gone
Grave	graved	graven, or graved
Grind	ground	ground
Grow	grew	grown
Hang	hung, or hanged	hung, or hanged
Have	had	had
Hear	heard	heard
Heave	heaved, or hove	heaved, or hoven
Help	helped	helped, or holpen
Hew	hewed	hewn, or hewed
Hide	hid	hidden, or hid
Hit	hit	hit
Hold	held	held, or holden
Hurt	hurt	hurt
Keep	kept	kept
Kneel	knelt	knelt
Knit	knit, or knitted	knit, or knitted
Know	knew	known
Lade	laded	laden
Lay	laid	laid
Lead	led	led
Leave	left	left

Present.	Past.	Perfect Part.
Lend	lent	lent
Let	let	let
Lie, to lie down	lay	lain, or lien
Lift	lifted, or lift	lifted, or lift
Light	lighted, or lit	lighted, or lit
Load	loaded	loaden, or loaded
Lose	lost	lost
Make	made	made
Mean	meant, or meaned	meant, or meaned
Meet	met	met
Mow	mowed	mown, or mowed
Pay	paid	paid
Put	put	put
Quit	quit, or quitted	quit
Read	read	read
Rend	rent	rent
Rid	rid	rid
Ride	rode, or rid	ridden, or rid
Ring	0,	rung
Rise	rose	risen
Rive	rived	
Rot	rotted	rotted, or rotten
Run	ran	run
Saw	sawed	sawn, or sawed
Say	said	said
See	saw	
Seek	sought	_ :
Seethe	seethed, or sod	sodden
Sell	sold	sold
Send	sent	sent
Set	set	set
Shake	shook	shaken
Shape	shaped	shaped, or shapen
Shave	shaved	shaved, or shaven
ShearShed	sheared, or shore	shorn
Shine	shedshone, or shined	shed
Shew	shewed	
Show	showed	
Shoe		
Shoot		
Shrink		
	shred	
Dilleu	SILLEU	SILLEG

INFLECTION OF WORDS.

Present.	Past.	Perfect Part.
Shut	shut	shut
Sing	sung, or sang	sung
Sink	sunk, or sank	sunk, or sunken
Sit	sat	sitten, or sat
Slay	slew	slain
Sleep	slept	slept
Slide	slid	slidden
Sling	slung, or slang	slung
Slit	slit, or slitted	slit, or slitted
Smite	smote	smitten, or smit
Sow	sowed	sown, or sowed
Speak	spake, or spoke	spoken
Speed	sped	sped
Spend	spilt, or spilled	spent spilt, or spilled
SpillSpin	spun, or span	spin, or spined
Spit	spit, or spat	spit, or spitten
Split	split, or splitted	split, or splitted
Spread	spread	spread
Spring	sprung, or sprang	sprung
Stand	stood	stood
Steal	stole	stolen
Stick	stuck	stuck
Sting	stung	stung
Stink	stunk, or stank	stunk
Stride	strode, or strid	stridden
Strike	struck	struck, or stricken
String	strung	strung
Strive,	strove	striven
Strew, or Strow	strewed, or >	Strewed
Strow }	strewed, or strowed	strown, or astrowed
Swear	swore, or sware	sworn
Sweat	sweat	sweat
Sweep	swept	swept
Swell	swelled	swelled, or swollen
Swim	swam, or swum	swum
Swing	swing, or swang	swung
Take	took	taken
Teach	taught	taught
Tear	tore, or tare	torn
Tell	told	
Think	thought	
Thrive	throve, or thrived	thriven
0.4	- 1	

Present.	Past.	Perfect Part.
Throw	threw,	thrown
Thrust	thrust	thrust
Tread	trod, or trode	trodden
Wax	waxed	waxed, or waxen
Wear	wore	worn
Weave	wove	woven
Weep	wept	wept
Win	won	won
Wind	wound, or winded	wound
Work	wrought, or worked	wrought, or worked
Wring	wrung, or wringed	wrung, or wringed
Write	wrote, or writ	written, or writ
Writhe	writhed	writhen, or writhed

140. The *Defective* Verbs are the following; and they are generally irregular, as well as defective:—

Present.	Past.	Perfect Part.
Can	could	
		forgone
	might	
Must	must	
	ought	
	should	
Will	would	
Wis	wist	
Wit, or Wot	wot	

141. The Irregular Verbs, be, do, have, and the Defective Verbs, shall, will, may, can, are perhaps of greater use than any other verbs in the language.

They are called *Generic* Verbs from the extreme generality of the ideas they express, and to distinguish them from such verbs as *love*, write, which, being expressive of more limited ideas, are called *Specific* Verbs.

To be, denotes being or existence in general; as, "He is," "He is old," "It is written."

To do, denotes action in general; as, "I do wrong," "I do write."

To have, denotes possession in general; as, "I have knowledge," "I have written."

^{140.} Give a list of the Defective Verbs, with all their parts. 141. Which are the most useful verbs in the language? Why are they called Generic Verbs? What does to be denote? To do? To have?

Shall, denotes duty or obligation in general, and, by inference, futurity; as, "He shall obey me," "I shall write to-morrow."

Will, denotes volition or intention, and, by inference, futurity; as, "I will, be thou whole," "He will write to-morrow."

May, conveys the idea of liberty or permission, and, by inference, contingency; as, "He may go if he will," "He may have written or not."

Can, has the sense of is able, and denotes power or ability in general; as, "I can write, though you cannot."

142. The Generic Verbs are thus inflected:—

TO BE.

-	Present.	Past.	Perfect Part.
	Am	was	been

Present Tense.

Sing.	Pli	ur.
1. I am	l. We are	е,
2. Thou art	2. Ye or y	ou are,
3. He, she, <i>or</i> it is	3. They a	re.

Past Tense.

Sing.	Plur.
1. I was	
2. Thou wast	2. Ye or you were,
3. He, she, or it was	3. They were.

Past Tense Conditional.

(When used to assert contingent or conditional existence.*) 1. I were..... 1. We were,

2. Thou wert...... 2. Ye or you were,

3. He, she, or it were...... 3. They were.

Participles.

.....Perfect. Imperfect. Being.....

Infinitive. † Be, or to be.

"Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him," is an ellipsis for

"Though he should slay me."

Shall? Will? May? Can? 142. How is the Generic Verb to be inflected?

^{*} The verb to be is the only one in the English language which has a simple conditional form. In the case of all other verbs, the form, when it occurs, is purely elliptical. Thus, "If he say so, it is well," is an ellipsis for "If he shall say so."

[†] The infinitive is given in the conjugation of the verb to be, because it is the only instance in which the infinitive is different in form from

TO DO.

Present.	Dant	Perfect Part.						
Dodiddone.								
Present Tense.								
Sing.		Plur.						
1. I do								
 Thou doest or dost He, she, or it doeth 		•						
J. IIe, she, or it doesn	, dom, or does	. S. They do.						
Past Tense.								
Sing.		Plur.						
1. I did								
2. Thou didst								
3. He, she, or it did	••••••	. 3. They did.						
Participles.								
Imperfect. Doing		Perfect. Done.						
	TO HAVE.							
Present.	Past.	Perfect Part.						
		had.						
πανε	······iiau·····	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·						
	Present Tense.							
Sing.		Plur.						
1. I have								
2. Thou hast								
3. He, she, or it hath	or nas	. 5. They have.						
Past Tense.								
1. I had								
2. Thou hadst								
3. He, she, or it had.	,	. 3. They had.						
	Participles.							
Imperfect. Having	•	Perfect. Had.						

the present tense. But it is more than probable that even this verb did not originally furnish an exception to the universal usage of the language. The present tense, I be, thou beest, &c., is used by old writers; and it is still used (with perhaps the exception of beest,) when doubt or contingency is to be expressed. Thus, "If thou be the Son of God, cast thyself down."

SHALL.*

Present Tense.

1 7636111 16	1630.
Sing.	Plur.
1. I shall	1. We shall.
2. Thou shalt	2. Ye or you shall,
3. He, she, <i>or</i> it shall	
Past Ten	se.
Sing.	Plur.
1. I should	1. We should,
2. Thou shouldst	
3. He, she, or it should	3. They should.
WILL.	٩
Present Te	nse.
Sing.	Plur.
1. I will	1. We will.
2. Thou wilt	
3. He, she, <i>or</i> it will	
	•
Past Tens	se.
Sing.	Plur.
1. I would	1. We would,
2. Thou wouldst	2. Ye or you would,

^{*} Shall is a derivative from the Saxon sceal, I owe, or, I ought, and signifies, "it is my duty." It is used in this sense by our old writers; as, for instance, by Chaucer, when he says, "The faith I shall to God;" that is, "the faith I owe to God;" nor has it ever yet lost its original signification. "Thou shalt not kill," is, "thou oughtest not to kill." But as all duties, though present in respect of their obligation, must be future in their performance, so, by a natural transition, this word, which strictly predicates only present duty, has come to be used as "a note of future time." Hence it is described, in the text, as expressive of duty, and, by inference, of futurity. Will, in like manner, only expresses present intention; yet, as the performance of present intention is necessarily future, it is employed to note futurity. "I shall write," in strict. ness, intimates no more than it is my present duty to write; but the phrase is universally interpreted as if it meant to intimate that I am to write at some time now future. "He will write," in strictness, intimates no more than that it is his present intention to write; but the same interpretation is universally put upon it as upon the other phrase. The difference between the present application of shall and will is clearly stated by Webster: shall is merely future in the first person, and imperative in the other two; with will, the case is exactly reversed.

3. He, she, or it would 3. They would.

How is the generic verb Shall inflected? - How is Will inflected?

MAY.

Present Tense.

Sing.	Plur.
1. I may	1. We may,
2. Thou mayest	2. Ye, or you may,
3. He, she, or it may	2. They may.

Past Tense.

Sing.	Plur.
1. I might	1. We might,
2. Thou mightest	2. Ye, or you might,
3 He she on it might	2 Thou might

CAN.

Present Tense.

Sing.		Plur.	
1. I can	1.	We can,	
2. Thou canst	2.	Ye, or you can,	
3. He, she, <i>or</i> it can	3.	They can.	
Past Tense.			

Sing.	Plur.
1. I could	1. We could,
2. Thou couldst	2. Ye, or you could,
3. He, she, <i>or</i> it could	3. They could.

II. INFLECTION OF COMPOUND VERBS.

143. The generic verbs are most commonly used in combination with other verbs, which are joined with them to limit their signification.

Thus, if I say, I can, I affirm that I have power or ability in general, without limiting it to any particular kind, or application of power. But if I subjoin the specific verb, write, and say, I can write, I restrict my affirmation to my power to write.

144. The generic verbs, when combined with other verbs, form what are called *Compound Verbs*.

Thus, I have loved, I had written, I shall have walked, I might have been struck, are compound verbs.

How is the generic verb May inflected? — How is Can inflected? 143. How are the generic verbs used? Give an example. 144. What are

The generic verbs have obtained the name of Auxiliary Verbs, from being used, principally, to form compound verbs.

Compound verbs are essential, in order to enable us to express those additional tenses and modifications which languages of a more artificial structure express by inflection.

In consequence of the facility it affords for forming compound tenses, our language, though limited in tenses formed by inflection, is rich beyond most languages in tenses formed by combination.

When combined with other verbs, our generic verbs serve the same purposes as the inflections of the simple verb in languages which have numerous inflections.

	ENGLISH.	F	RENCH.	LATIN.
Ι	did speak	Je	parlais	Dicebam.
Ι	shall speak	Je	parlerai	Dicam.
Ι	might speak	Je	parlerais	Dicerem.

Here, did, shall, and might, correspond to, and serve the same purpose with, the flexional terminations, ais, erai, and erais, in French, and ebam, am, and erem, in Latin.

ACTIVE AND PASSIVE VOICES.

- 145. Compound Transitive verbs have two Voices, or Forms,—the Active and Passive.
- 146. The Active Voice is the form which the verb assumes when its subject, or nominative, is the agent; as, "I have struck."
- 147. The *Passive Voice* is the form which the verb assumes when its subject, or nominative, is the object of the action; as, "I have been struck."

MOODS.

In giving the inflection of compound verbs, it has been deemed necessary, in the present work, to conform to the usual arrangement of moods and tenses, by which the simple are exhibited in connexion with the compound forms of the verbs. Before proceeding to exhibit the moods and tenses in their usual order, an explanation of their meaning and intention, as generally understood, is here given.

148. Mood, or mode, is a form of the verb, showing the manner in which the action is represented.

compound verbs? Give an example. What are auxiliary verbs? What is the use of compound verbs? In what is our language rich? What is the use of the generic verbs in combination with other verbs? Give examples of French and Latin inflections compared with the English combinations of generic verbs, with the irregular verb Speak. 145. How many voices have Transitive verbs? 146. Define the Active Voice. 147. Define the Passive Voice. 148. What is meant by mood,

- 149. There are five Moods, the *Indicative*, *Potential*, *Subjunctive*, *Imperative*, and *Infinitive*.
- 150. The *Indicative* Mood simply affirms or declares a thing; as, I love; I am loved.
- 151. The *Potential* Mood is the form of the verb which is used for asserting the *possibility*, *liberty*, *power*, *will*, or *obligation* to be, to do, or to suffer; as, I may go or stay; I can write; I would walk; We should respect the laws.
 - For convenience the forms of this mood are arranged under different tenses; but in strictness they appear to have very little distinct reference to time. For example, in the form of the present tense there is nothing to indicate that the action is not referred to a future and even a remote time; as, I may have permission to leave college today, next week, or next year.
- 152. The Subjunctive Mood represents an action under a condition, motive, wish, or supposition. It is generally preceded by a conjunction, expressed or understood, and attended by another verb; as, "If ye love me, keep my commandments."
- 153. The *Imperative* Mood is the form of the verb which is used for commanding, exhorting, entreating, or permitting; as, *Obey* me; *Remember* thy Creator; *Hear*, O Israel; *Depart* in peace.
 - Perhaps it is more accurate to limit the definition of the Imperative Mood to commanding, as it will be observed that in each of the above examples the verb assumes the form of command.
 - The Imperative Mood is a simple form of the verb, having no inflection. In the following arrangement of the mood and tenses, it will be found with the compound forms, in order that the pupil may recite the whole in connection.
- 154. The *Infinitive* Mood expresses action or being in a general manner, without any distinction of number or person; as, *To love; to write.*
 - The preposition to being generally prefixed to the verb in this mood, is called the sign of the Infinitive.

or mode? 149. How many moods are there, and what are their names? 150. Define the *Indicative* Mood. 151. The *Potential* Mood. 152. The *Subjunctive* Mood. 153. The *Imperative* Mood. 154. The *Infinitive* Mood. What is the sign of the Infinitive?

As the essence of the verb consists in affirmation, the infinitive is not strictly speaking a part of the verb, any more than the participles; it is more properly a noun, and it was formerly called the *noun*, or name of the verb.

The Infinitive Mood is a simple form of the verb, like the Imperative; and it is included in the arrangement of the compound forms for the same reason.

TENSE.

155. The Tenses are modifications of the verb which mark the distinctions of time.

156. There are six tenses, including those expressed by inflection alone, and those expressed by the use of auxiliary or generic verbs. They are, the *Present*, the *Imperfect*, the *Perfect*, the *Pluperfect*, the *First Future*, and the *Second Future*.

157. The *Present Tense* denotes that the action or state expressed by the verb, is in present time; as, I love.

158. In order to give greater force to the affirmation the Present Tense occasionally assumes what is called an *Emphatic Form*, by the use of the auxiliary verb do; as, I do write.

159. The *Imperfect Tense* denotes that the action or state expressed by the verb is past; as, I *loved*.

160. The Imperfect Tense has an Emphatic Form, similar to that of the Present Tense; as, I did write.

161. The *Perfect Tense* represents an action as completed at the present time; as, I have written my letter.

162. The *Pluperfect Tense* denotes that the action or event has taken place at or before a certain time past; as, I had left the city before he arrived.

163. The First Future Tense denotes an action or event which is yet to come; as, I will walk; He shall depart.

164. The Second Future Tense denotes that an action or event will take place at or before a future time; as, I shall have finished my theme at six o'clock; He will have arrived before the gates will be shut.

^{155.} What are the Tenses? 156. How many Tenses are there? Name them. 157. Describe the Present Tense. 158. Its Emphatic Form. 159. The Imperfect. 160. Its Emphatic Form. 161. The Perfect. 162. The Pluperfect. 163. The First Future. 164. The Second Future.

CONJUGATION.

165. The *Conjugation* of a verb is the enunciation of its several modes, tenses, numbers, and persons, in their regular order.

The term Conjugation is sometimes applied to the naming of its three principal parts, viz: the present and imperfect tenses, and the perfect participle; as, Present, go; Imperfect, went; Perfect Participle, gone.

166. In the following pages the generic verbs, have and be, the regular verb love, and the irregular verb know, are conjugated. The verbs love and know being active or transitive, are conjugated in the passive as well as in the active voice.*

TO HAVE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Sing.		Plur.
1. I have	1.	We have,
2. Thou hast	2.	Ye, or you have
3. He, she, or it hath, or has	3.	They have.

Present Tense - Emphatic Form.

Sing.	Plur.
1. I do have	1. We do have,
2. Thou dost have	2. Ye, or you do have,
3. He does have	3. They do have.

Imperfect Tense.

Sing.	rur.
1. I had	1. We had,
2. Thou hadst	2. Ye, or you had,
3. He, she, <i>or</i> it had	3. They had.

^{*} Some neuter verbs are occasionally used in the passive form by good writers; as, We are come; they are gone.

^{165.} What is the Conjugation of a verb? How is the term Conjugation sometimes limited? 166. What verbs are conjugated in the following pages? Which of them have the passive form? Are neuter verbs ever used in the passive form?

Imperfect Tense - Emphatic Form.

	Sing.		Plur.
1.	I did have	1.	We did have,
2.	Thou didst have	2.	Ye or you did have,
3.	He did have	3.	They did have.

Perfect Tense.

Sing.		Plur.
1. I have had	1.	We have had,
2. Thou hast had	2.	Ye or you have had,
3. He has had	3.	They have had.

Pluperfect Tense.

Sing.	Plur.	
1. I had had	1. We had had,	
2. Thou hadst had	2. Ye or you had had,	
3. He had had	3. They had had.	

First Future Tense.

Sing.	Plur.
1. I shall or will have	1. We shall or will have,
2. Thou shalt or wilt have	2. Ye or you shall or will have,
3. He shall or will have	3. They shall or will have.

Second Future Tense.

Sing.		Plur.
1. I shall have had	1.	We shall have had,
2. Thou wilt have had	2.	Ye or you will have had,
3. He will have had	3.	They will have had.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Sing.	Plur.
2. Have or have thou or do?	2. Have or have ye or do ye ?
thou have	or you have.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

Sing.	Plur.
1. I may or can have	1. We may or can have,
2. Thou mayst or canst have .	2. Ye or you may or can have,
3. He may or can have	3. They may or can have.

Sing. Plur.

- I might, could, would or should have,
 We might, could, would or should have,
- Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst or shouldst have, would or should have,
- 3. He might, could, would or 3. They might, could, would or should have.

Perfect.

Sing. Plur.

ay or can have had, 1. We may or can have had,

- I may or can have had,
 Thou mayst or canst have
 Ye may or can have had,
 Ye or you may or can have
- 3. He may or can have had. 3. They may or can have had.

Pluperfect Tense.

Sing. Plur.

- I might, could, would or 1. We might, could, would or should have had, should have had,
- Thou mightst, couldst, 2. Ye or you might, could, wouldst or shouldst have had,
 hould should have had,
- He might, could, would or 3. They might, could, would or should have had.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

 Sing.
 Plur.

 1. If I have
 1. If we have,

 2. If thou have
 2. If ye or you have,

 3. If he have
 3. If they have.

Sing.

Present Tense - Emphatic Form.

If I do have
 If the do have,
 If the do have
 If the do have
 If the do have

Imperfect Tense.

 Sing.
 Plur.

 1. If I had
 1. If we had,

 2. If thou hadst
 2. If ye or you had,

 3. If he had
 3. If they had,

INTEROTION OF WORLDS.
Imperfect Tense - Emphatic Form.
Sing. Plur.
1. If I did have 1. If we did have,
2. If thou didst have 2. If ye or you did have,
3. If he did have 3. If they did have.
nec , m
Perfect Tense. Sing. Plur.
Sing. Plur. 1. If I have had 1. If we have had,
2. If thou hast had 2. If ye or you have had,
3. If he has had 3. If they have had,
o. If he has had o. If they have had.
Pluperfect Tense.
Sing. Plur.
1. If I had had 1. If we had had,
2. If thou hadst had 2. If ye or you had had,
3. If he had had 3. If they had had.
First Future Tense.
Sing, Furst Future Tense. Plur.
1. If I shall or will have 1. If we shall or will have,
2. If thou shalt or will have 2. If ye or you shall or will have,
3. If he shall or will have 3. If they shall or will have.
V. II Me Shall of Will have b. II they shall of Will have.
Second Future Tense.
Sing. Plur.
1. If I shall have had 1. If we shall have had,
2. If thou wilt have had 2. If ye or you will have had,
3. If he will have had 3. If they will have had.
INFINITIVE MOOD
INFINITIVE MOOD. Present. To have Perfect. To have had.
10 have mad.
Participles.
Present, or Active. Having Perfect. Had.
Compound Perfect. Having had.
TO BE.
INDICATIVE MOOD.
Present Tense,
Sing. Plur.
1. I am 1. We are,
2. Thou art 2. Ye or you are,
3. He, she or it is 3. They are.
7*

Sing.	Plur.	
1. I was	1. We were,	
2. Thou wast	2. Ye or you were	,,
3. He was	3. They were.	

Perfect Tense.

	Sing.		Plur.
1.	I have been	1.	We have been,
2.	Thou hast been	2.	Ye or you have been,
3.	He hath, or has been	3.	They have been.

Pluperfect Tense.

Sing.	Plur.
1. I had been	1. We had been,
2. Thou hadst been	2. Ye or you had been,
3. He had been	3. They had been.

First Future Tense.

Tust Tuture Tense.		
Sing.	Plur.	
1. I shall, or will be	. 1. We shall or will be,	
2. Thou shalt or wilt be	. 2. Ye or you shall or will be,	
3. He shall or will be	. 3. They shall or will be.	

Second Future Tense.

	2000114 1 4		
	Sing.		Plur.
	1. I shall have been	1.	We shall have been,
4	2. Thou wilt have been	2.	Ye or you will have been,
	3. He will have been	3.	They will have been.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Sing.	Plur.	
2. Be thou or do thou be	2. Be ye or you or do ye l	be.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

Sing.	Plur.
1. I may or can be	1. We may or can be,
2. Thou mayst or canst be	2. Ye or you may or can be,
3. He may or can be	3. They may, or can be.

Sing. Plur.

1. I might, could, would, or 1. We should be,

Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst be,

3. He might, could, would, or should be.

1. We might, could, would, or should be.

2. Ye or you might, could, would, or should be,

3. They might, could, would, or should be.

Perfect Tense.

Sing. Plur.

1. I may or can have been,

Thou mayst or canst have been.

3. He may or can have been.

1. We may or can have been,

2. Ye or you may or can have been.

3. They may or can have been.

Pluperfect Tense.

Sing. Pla

1. I might, could, would, or should have been,

 Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst have been,

3. He might, could, would, or should have been.

Plur.

1. We might, could, would, or should have been.

 Ye or you might, could, would, or should have been.

3. They might, could, would, or should have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Sing. Plur.
1. If I be...... 1. If we be,

2. If thou be 2. If ye or you be,

3. If he be 3. If they be.

Imperfect Tense.

2. If thou wert 2. If ye or you were,

3. If he were...... 3. If they were.

Perfect Tense.

Sing. Plur.

1. If I have been 1. If we have been,

2. If thou hast been..... 2. If ye or you have been,

3. If he hath or has been 3. If they have been.

ETIMOLOGI.
Di C. M
Pluperfect Tense.
Sing. Plur. 1. If I had been 1. If we had been,
 If thou hadst been
5. If he had been 5. If they had been.
First Future Tense.
Sing. Plur.
1. If I shall or will be 1. If we shall or will be,
2. If thou shalt or wilt be 2. If ye or you shall or will be,
3. If he shall or will be 3. If they shall or will be.
S 1 Ti
Second Future Tense.
Sing. Plur.
 If I shall have been If the shall have been, If thou wilt have been If ye or you will have been,
3. If he will have been 3. If they will have been,
5. If he will have been 5. If they will have been.
INFINITIVE MOOD.
Present Tense. To bePerfect. To have been.
1 resent tense. 10 be 10 have been.
Participles.
Present. Being
Compound Perfect. Having been.
ACTIVE VOICE.— TO LOVE.
INDICATIVE MOOD.
Present Tense.
Sing. Plur.
1. I love 1. We love,
2. Thou lovest 2. Ye or you love,
3. He, she, or it loveth or loves. 3. They love.
Present Tense. — Emphatic Form.
Sing. Plur.
1. I do love
2. Thou dost love 2. Ye or you do love,
3. He does love 3. They do love.
Imperfect Tense.
Sing. Plur.
1 I loved 1 We loved
1. I loved 1. We loved,
2. Thou lovedst

Imperfect Tense. - Emphatic Form.

Imperfect Tense. — Emphatic Form.		
Sing. Plur.		
1. I did love 1. We did love,		
2. Thou didst love 2. Ye or you did love,		
3. He did love 3. They did love.		
Doubont Thomas		
Perfect Tense.		
Sing. Plur.		
1. I have loved 1. We have loved,		
2. Thou hast loved 2. Ye or you have loved,		
3. He has loved 3. They have loved.		
Pluperfect Tense.		
Sing. Plur.		
1. I had loved 1. We had loved,		
2. Thou hadst loved 2. Ye or you had loved,		
3. He had loved 3. They had loved.		
The state of the s		
First Future Tense.		
Sing. Plur.		
1. I shall or will love 1. We shall or will love,		
2. Thou shalt or wilt love 2. Ye or you shall or will love,		
3. He shall or will love 3. They shall or will love.		
Second Future Tense.		
Sing. Plur.		
1. I shall have loved 1. We shall have loved,		
2. Thou wilt have loved 2. Ye or you will have loved,		
3. He will have loved 3. They will have loved.		
IMPED A TIVE MOOD		
IMPERATIVE MOOD.		
Present Tense.		
Sing. Plur.		
2. Love, or love thou, or do 2 2. Love, or love ye or you, or 3		
thou love		
POTENTIAL MOOD.		
Present Tense.		
Sing. Plur.		
1. I may or can love 1. We may or can love,		
2. Thou mayst or canst love 2. Ye or you may or can love,		
3. He may or can love 3. They may or can love.		
21 220 1111 C. Small love to the state of a maj or out 10101		

Sing.

Plur.

- 1. I might, could, would, or should love,
- We might, could, would, or should love,
- 2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst love,
- 2. Ye or you might, could, would, or should love,
- 3. He might, could, would, or should love.
- 3. They might, could, would, or should love.

Perfect Tense.

Sing.

Plur.

- 1. I may or can have loved,
- 1. We may or can have loved,
- 2. Thou mayst or canst have loved,
- 2. Ye or you may or can have loved,
- 3. He may or can have loved.
 - 3. They may or can have loved.

Pluperfect Tense.

Sins

Plur.

- 1. I might, could, would, or should have loved,
 - 1. We might, could, would, or should have loved,
- 2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst have loved,
- Ye or you might, could, would, or should have loved,
- 3. He might, could, would, or should have loved.
- They might, could, would, or should have loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Sing. Plur.
1. If I love 1. If we love,

2. If thou love...... 2. If ye or you love,

3. If he love...... 3. If they love.

Present Tense. - Emphatic Form.

Sing. Plur.

1. If I do love 1. If we do love,

2. If thou do love..... 2. If ye or you do love,

3. If he do love...... 3. If they do love.

Imperfect Tense.

Sing. Plur.

3. If he loved 3. If they loved.

Imperfect Tense	- Emphatic Form.	
Sing.	Plur.	
1. If I did love		
2. If thou didst love	2. If ve or you did love,	
3. If he did love	3. If they did love.	
Perfect		
Sing.	Plur.	
1. If I have loved		
2. If thou hast loved3. If he has loved	z. If ye or you have loved,	
3. If he has loved	3. If they have loved.	
Pluperfee	ct Tense.	
Sing.	Plur.	
1. If I had loved		
2. If thou hadst loved		
3. If he had loved	3. If they had loved.	
First Futu	re Tense.	
Sing.	Plur.	
1. If I shall or will love	1. If we shall or will love,	
2. If thou shalt or wilt love	2. If ye or you shall or will love,	
3. If he shall or will love	3. If they shall or will love.	
Second Fut	ure Tense.	
Sing.	Plur.	
1. If I shall have loved	1. If we shall have loved,	
2. If thou wilt have loved	2. If ye or you will have loved,	
3. If he will have loved	3. If they will have loved.	
INFINITIV	VE MOOD.	
Present. To love	Perfect. To have loved.	
Participles.		
Present. Loving	•	
Compound Perfect. Having lov		
compensate and accompany		
PASSIVE VOICE.	- TO BE LOVED.	
INDICATI	VE MOOD.	
Present	Tense.	
Sing.	Plur.	
1. I am loved	1. We are loved,	
2. Thou art loved	2. Ye or you are loved,	
3. He is loved	3. They are loved.	
,		

Sing.

Imperfect Tense.

Plur.

3. He was loved 3. They were loved.
Perfect Tense.
Sing. Plur.
1. I have been loved 1. We have been loved,
2. Thou hast been loved 2. Ye or you have been loved,
3. He has been loved 3. They have been loved.
Pluperfect Tense.
Sing. Plur.
1. I had been loved 1. We had been loved,
2. Thou hadst been loved 2. Ye or you had been loved,
3. He had been loved 3. They had been loved.
First Future Tense.
Sing. Plur.
1. I shall or will be loved 1. We shall or will be loved,
2. Thou shalt or wilt be loved. 2. Ye or you shall or will be loved,
3. He shall or will be loved 3. They shall or will be loved.
Second Future Tense.
Sing. Plur.
1. I shall have been loved 1. We shall have been loved,
2. Thou wilt have been loved. 2. Ye or you will have been loved,
3. He will have been loved 3. They will have been loved.
IMPERATIVE MOOD.
Present Tense.
Sing. Plur.
2. Be thou loved, or do thou? 2. Be ye, or you loved, or do?
be loved
POTENTIAL MOOD.
Present Tense.
Sing. Plur.
1. I may or can be loved 1. We may or can be loved,
2. Thou mayest or canst be 2. Ye or you may or can be
loved loved,
3. He may or can be loved 3. They may or can be loved.

Sing.

Plur.

- I might, could, would, or should be loved,
- 2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst be loved,
- 3. He might, could, would, or should be loved.
- 1. We might, could, would, or should be loved,
- Ye or you might, could, would, or should be loved,
- 3. They might, could, would, or should be loved.

Perfect Tense.

Sing.

Plur.

- 1. I may or can have been loved,
- 2. Thou mayst or canst have been loved,
- 3. He may or can have been loved.
- 1. We may or can have been loved,
- 2. Ye or you may or can have been loved,
- 3. They may or can have been loved.

Pluperfect Tense.

Sing.

Plur.

Plur.

- 1. I might, could, would, or should have been loved,
- 2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst have been loved.
- 3. He might, could, would, or should have been loved.
- We might, could, would, or should have been loved,
- Ye or you might, could, would, or should have been loved,
- 3. They might, could, would, or should have been loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Sing

- 1. If I be loved 1. If we be loved,
- 2. If thou be loved 2. If ye or you be loved,
- 3. If he be loved...... 3. If they be loved.

Imperfect Tense.

Sing.

Plur.

- 1. If I were loved 1. If we were loved,
- If thou wert loved
 If ye or you were loved,
 If he were loved
 If they were loved.

Perfect Tense.

Sing.	Plur.	
Te T have been land	1 Tf Laur boom la	

- 1. If I have been loved 1. If we have been loved,
- 2. If thou hast been loved 2. If ye or you have been loved,
- 3. If he has been loved 3. If they have been loved.

Pluperfect Tense.

Sing. Plur

- 1. If I had been loved...... 1. If we had been loved.
- 2. If thou hadst been loved ... 2. If ye or you had been loved,
- 3. If he had been loved 3. If they had been loved.

First Future Tense.

Sing.

- 1. If I shall or will be loved. 1. If we shall or will be loved,
- 2. If thou shalt or wilt be 2. If ye or you shall or will be loved. loved.
- 3. If he shall or will be loved. 3. If they shall or will be loved.

Second Future Tense.

Sing. Plur.

- 1. If I shall have been loved. 1. If we shall have been loved.
- 2. If thou wilt have been 2. If ye or you will have been loved, loved.
- 3. If he will have been loved. 3. If they will have been loved.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. To be loved Perfect. To have been loved.

Participles.

Present. Being loved. Perfect. Loved. Compound Perfect. Having been loved.

ACTIVE VOICE. - TO KNOW.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Plur.

- Sing. 1. I know 1. We know,
- 2. Thou knowest..... 2. Ye or you know,
- 3. He knows 3. They know.

Present Tense. - Emphatic Form.

Sing. Plur.

- 1. I do know...... 1. We do know,
- 2. Thou dost know 2. Ye or you do know,
- 3. He does know...... 3. They do know.

Sing.	Plur.
1. I knew	1. We knew,
2. Thou knewest	2. Ye or you knew
3. He knew	3. They knew.

Imperfect Tense - Emphatic Form.

Sing.	Plur.
1. I did know	1. We did know,
2. Thou didst know	2. Ye or you did know,
3. He did know	3. They did know.

Perfect Tense.

	Sing.		L tur.
1	. I have known	1.	We have known,
2	. Thou hast known	2.	Ye or you have known,
3	. He has known	3.	They have known.

Pluperfect Tense.

Sing.	Plur.
1. I had known	1. We had known,
2. Thou hadst known	2. Ye or you had known,
3. He had known	3. They had known.

First Future Tense.

	Sing.		rur.
1.	I shall or will know	1.	We shall or will know,
2.	Thou shalt or wilt know	2.	Ye or you shall or will know,
3.	He shall or will know	3.	They shall or will know.

Second Future Tense.

Sing.	rtur.
1. I shall have known	1. We shall have known,
2. Thou wilt have known	2. Ye or you will have known,
3. He will have known	3. They will have known.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Sing.		Plur.
2. Know, or know	thou, or 7 2.	Know, or know ye or you, ?
do thou know	5	or do ye know.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tonce

	_	
Sing.		Plui

- 1. I may or can know 1. We may or can know,
- 2. Thou mayst or canst know. 2. Ye or you may or can know.
- 3. He may or can know..... 3. They may or can know.

Imperfect Tense.

Sing. 1. We might, could, would, or

- 1. I might, could, would, or should know.
- 2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst know,
- 3. He might, could, would, or should know.

Plur

- should know, 2. Ye or you might, could,
- would, or should know,
- 3. They might, could, would, or should know.

Perfect Tense.

Sing. Plur.

- 1. I may or can have known, 1. We may or can have known,
- 2. Thou mayst or canst have 2. Ye or you may or can have known. known,
- 3. He may or can have known. 3. They may or can have known.

Pluperfect Tense.

Plur.Sing.

- 1. I might, could, would, or 1. We might, could, would, or should have known, should have known,
- 2. Thou mightst, couldst, 2. Ye or you might, could, wouldst, or shouldst have would, or should have known, known,
- 3. They might, could, would, or 3. He might, could, would, or should have known. should have known.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Sing.		Plur.
1. If I know .	1	. If we know

- 2. If thou know 2. If ye or you know,
- 3. If he know 3. If they know.

Present Tense - Emphatic Form.

Sing.

- 1. If I do know 1. If we do know,
- 2. If thou do know 2. If ye or you do know,
- 3. If he do know 3. If they do know.

Sing.	Plur.
1. If I knew	1. If we knew,
2. If thou knewest	2. If ye or you knew,
3. If he knew	3. If they knew.

Imperfect Tense - Emphatic Form.

Sing.	Plur.
1. If I did know	1. If we did know,
2. If thou didst know	2. If ye or you did know,
3. If he did know	3. If they did know.

Perfect Tense.

Plur.
1. If we have known,
2. If ye or you have known,
3. If they have known.

Pluperfect Tense.

Sing.	Plur.
1. If I had known	1. If we had known,
2. If thou hadst known	2. If ye or you had known,
3. If he had known	3. If they had known.

First Future Tense.

Sing.	Plur.
1. If I shall or will know	1. If we shall or will know,
2. If thou shalt or wilt know .	2. If ye or you shall or will know,
3. If he shall or will know	3. If they shall or will know.

Second Future Tense.

Sing.	Plur.
1. If I shall have known	1. If we shall have known,
2. If thou wilt have known	2. If ye or you will have known,
3. If he will have known	3. If they will have known.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. To know Perfect. To have known.

Participles.

Present. Knowing Perfect. Known.
Compound Perfect. Having known.

8*

PASSIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

n

Present Tense.

Sing.	Plur.
1. I am known	1. We are known,
2. Thou art known	2. Ye or you are known,
3 He is known	3 They are known

Imperfect Tense.

Sing.	Plur.
1. I was known	1. We were known,
2. Thou wast or wert known,	2. Ye or you were known,
3. He was known	3. They were known.

Sing

Sing.

Perfect Tense.

Ding.	2 001 0
1. I have been known	1. We have been known,
2. Thou hast been known	2. Ye or you have been known,
2 He has been known	3 They have been known

Pluperfect Tense.

Sing.	Plur.
1. I had been known	1. We had been known,
2. Thou hadst been known	2. Ye or you had been known,
3. He had been known	3. They had been known.

First Future Tense.

1. I shall or will be known	1.	We shall or will be known,
2. Thou shalt or wilt be known,	2.	Ye or you shall or will be known,

Plur.

3. He shall or will be known. 3. They shall or will be known.

Second Future Tense.

2000.00 2 0	turo I ortobe
Sing.	Plur.
1. I shall have been known,	1. We shall have been known,
2. Thou wilt have been	2. Ye or you will have been
known,	known,
3. He will have been known.	3. They will have been known.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Sing.	Plur.
1. Be thou known	2. Be ye or you known.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

Sing. Plur.

1. I may or can be known, 1. We may or can be known,

Thou mayst or canst be
 Ye or you may or can be known,

3. He may or can be known. 3. They may or can be known.

Imperfect Tense.

Sing. Plur.

I might, could, would, or 1. We might, could, would, or should be known,

Thou mightst, couldst,
 Ye or you might, could, wouldst, or shouldst be known,
 known,

He might, could, would, or 3. They might, could, would, should be known.

Perfect Tense.

Sing. Plur.

 I may or can have been 1. We may or can have been known,

Thou mayst or canst have
 Ye or you may or can have been known,

3. He may or can have been known.

Pluperfect Tense.

Sing. Plur.

1. I might, could, would, or 1. We might, could, would, or should have been known, should have been known,

2. Thou mightst, couldst, 2. Ye or you might, could, wouldst, or shouldst have been known, known,

He might, could, would, or should have been known.
 They might, could, would, or should have been known.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Sing. Plur.

1. If I am known....... 1. If we are known,

2. If thou art known 2. If ye or you are known,

3. If he is known 3. If they are known.

Sing. Plur.

- 1. If I was known 1. If we were known,
- 2. If thou wert known 2. If ye or you were known,
- 3. If he was known...... 3. If they were known.

Perfect Tense.

Sing. Plur.

- 1. If I have been known..... 1. If we have been known,
- 2. If thou hast been known,.. 2. If ye or you have been known,
- 3. If he has been known 3. If they have been known.

Pluperfect Tense.

Sing. Plur.

- If I had been known.
 If we had been known,
 If thou hadst been known.
 If ye or you had been known,
- 3. If he had been known..... 3. If they had been known.

First Future Tense.

Sing. Plur.

- 1. If I shall or will be known, 1. If we shall or will be known,
- If thou shalt or wilt be
 If ye or you shall or will be known,
- 3. If he shall or will be known. 3. If they shall or will be known.

Second Future Tense.

Sing. Plur.

- 1. If I shall have been known,
 1. If we shall have been known,
- 2. If thou wilt have been 2. If ye or you will have been known, known,
- 3. If he will have been known. 3. If they will have been known.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. To be known Perfect. To have been known.

Participles.

Imperfect. Being known.

Compound Perfect. Having been known.

EXERCISES ON THE INFLECTION OF WORDS. THE NOUN.

Number. — Point out which of the following Nouns admit of number: —

Ark, Babel, church, Darius, elm, France, girl, hamlet, innkeeper, iron.

What is the Number of the following Nouns?
Berries, church, days, hills, lashes, mosses, nuts, pence, planets, silk.

Pronounce and spell the Plural of the following Nouns: -

Ass, army, book, brush, chair, city, delay, dandy, envoy, fly, fox, grandee, hero, horse, inch, jelly, knife, lake, monarch, negro, pass, penny, queen, rebus, rostrum, scarf, stratum, watch, whiff.

How do we form the Plural of,

Die, dwarf, dungeon, fife, fish, folio, genius, grotto, hoof, index, joy, lamina, ox, pea, radius, seraph, sheep, tooth, virtuoso?

Correct the Errors in the following expressions: -

Two foxs, old folioes, sharp reproves, young calfs, tall footmans, they are brethren sons of the same father, two dwarves, how many swines? I have two foots, handsome ladys, idle boies, sturdy oxes, volcanos are generally on islands.

The foregoing Exercises may be recited orally, and also may be written. Those which follow, referring to the Pictures, are to be written.

EXERCISES TO BE WRITTEN BY THE PUPIL.



Wolf Hunt.

Write sentences referring to this picture, including nouns in the singular number, and nouns in the plural number, with verbs and adjectives.



A Conversation.

Write sentences referring to this picture, including nouns in the singular number, and nouns in the plural number, with verbs, articles, and adjectives. Introduce proper names, by giving names to the persons represented in the picture.



Write sentences referring to this picture, including nouns in both numbers, pronouns, articles, verbs, and adjectives.



The Village School.

Write sentences referring to this picture, including nouns in both numbers, articles, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs.

2. Gender. - What is the gender of,

Boy, Charles, child, cousin, dog, father, farthing, friend, horse, huntsman, inkstand, Ireland, joy, king, lass, master, parent, quantity, stag, widower.

Convert the following Masculine Nouns into Feminine Nouns, pronouncing and spelling the Feminine: —

Drake, duke, earl, emperor, gentleman, hart, hero, host, hunter, lion, male-child, master, nephew, shepherd, widower.

Correct the Errors in the following expressions: -

Alexander, my sister. David is a widow. Eliza is a bridegroom. Charles the Second was a bad queen. She was my benefactoress. How sweet a songsteress! This is my tutress. O the traitoress! Look at that goatess.

EXERCISES TO BE WRITTEN.



Charity.

Write sentences referring to this picture, including nouns in both genders, with verbs and adjectives.



Domestic Scene.

Write sentences referring to this picture, including nouns in both genders, with verbs and adjectives. Introduce proper nouns.



The Boy and the Geese.

Write sentences referring to this picture, including nouns in both genders, with articles, verbs, adjectives, and pronouns.



The Procession.

Write nouns referring to this picture, including nouns in the masculine gender, with verbs, articles, adjectives, and pronouns.

3. Case. — Point out the Nouns in the following Sentences, and mention in what Case each of them is.

John struck the table.

John's horse kicked James.

My brother's dog bit me, but I stoned my brother's dog.

The wall of the city shelters my father's house.

My father's house is sheltered by the wall of the city.

Men's thoughts are vanity.

Decline the following Nouns, both orally and in writing:

Ass, author, beau, Charles, hero, mother, parent, queen, ruler, woman.

EXERCISES TO BE WRITTEN.



Domestic Scene.

Write sentences referring to this picture, including nouns in the nominative, and nouns in the objective case, articles, verbs, and adjectives.



Write sentences including nouns in the nominative, possessive, and objective cases, verbs, adjectives, and articles.



Gleaners.

Write sentences including nouns in the nominative and possessive cases, articles, verbs, adjectives, and pronouns.



The Pigs and their Keeper.

Write sentences including nouns in the nominative and objective cases, articles, verbs, adjectives, and pronouns.



The Gardener.

Write sentences referring to this picture, introducing nouns, verbs, adjectives, and articles, and showing the inflections of nouns, in number, gender, and case.



The Miser and his Poor Relations.

Write sentences showing the inflections of nouns, in number, gender, and case; and introducing proper, as well as common nouns.



Fanny and Lucy at Play.

Write sentences showing the inflections of nouns, in number, gender, and case; and introducing proper nouns.

THE ADJECTIVE.

Point out the Adjectives, in the following list, which admit of comparison: —

Able, beautiful, circular, cold, evil, few, four, full, golden, hilly, ill, just, long, mournful, ninth, open, right, square, supreme, universal, worshipful, worthy.

What degree of comparison are,

Ancient, better, costliest, dreary, envious, gayest, huge, lazy, more, most, tremendous, next, superior, uttermost?

Pronounce and Spell the comparatives and superlatives of,
Bad, big, coy, cruel, faithful, grave, hale, ill, little, low, mad, pretty,
pure, true, white, worthless.

Correct the following expressions: -

The good scholar is happyer, as well as attentiver than the idler. Spring is the beautifullest season of the year; summer is the hotest; winter is the gloomyest; autumn is the livelyest. I have done it the rightest way, and deserve the chiefest price. John is littler, but gooder than you.

EXERCISES TO BE WRITTEN.



The Pedlar.

Write sentences referring to this picture, including adjectives in the positive degree, nouns, articles, and verbs.



Conversation on the Road.

Write sentences introducing nouns, articles, and verbs, with adjectives in the positive and comparative degrees.



Sickness.

Write sentences including nouns, verbs, and articles, with adjectives in the positive, comparative, and superlative degrees.



The Cow.

Write sentences including nouns, adjectives in the positive and comparative degrees, verbs, articles, and adverbs.

THE PRONOUN.

What kind of Pronoun is,

Who, self, he, she, we, they, that, whether, our, their, which, what, thy, thou?

Tell the Person, Number, Gender, and Case, of each of the following Pronouns:—

Him, us, I, them, thine, yours, theirs, ours, ye, he, she, mine, we.

Parse the following sentences, telling the Number, Gender, and Case of Nouns; the degrees of comparison of the Adjectives; and the Person, Number, Gender, and Case, of the Pronouns:—

I love the boy who loves his lesson.

I dislike these idle fellows.

Charles and David are the best wrestlers, but the worst scholars in their respective classes.

The girl who gained the third prize last year is the head of her class this year: she deserves the highest praise.

Many children, whose parents are poor, attain to learning, wealth and honour.

Good character, and good education, are surer roads to eminence than either large estates or illustrious birth.

EXERCISES TO BE WRITTEN.



Starting on a Journey.

Write sentences showing the inflections of the personal pronouns in number, and case.



The Steam-Boat.

Write sentences showing the inflections of the relative pronouns in case.



The Domestic Cat.

Write sentences showing the inflections of the demonstrative pronouns in number.



The Shepherd.

Write sentences showing the inflections of the personal, and adjective pronouns.

THE VERB.

What are the names of the following parts of the Verb?

Writing, learned, to love, run, flattering, hasten, hastened, to move, defeated, conquering, strike but hear me, come and try, come to try, hating, defended.

Regular Verbs to be inflected after the manner of "to love."

Ask, attend, bestow, cancel, command, commend, conquer, defend, dismiss, finish, gain, guard, learn, order, please, pray, prohibit, restore, walk.

Irregular Verbs, to be inflected after the manner of "to write."

Begin, blow, choose, draw, fall, freeze, fly, give, go, hide, know, lade, lie, slide, take, wear, weave.

Tell the Person, Number, Mood, and Tense, of

I struck; he is; we have; thou lovest; thou art; I had; we were; I wrote; thou abodest; ye brought; I cast; you thrust; they shall; we would; they are; thou hast; I bled; I am; they fled; we shone; they wept; he were; you were.

I have written. He should fear. We had loved. You shall be writing. They may flatter. They are smitten. It is sold. They could read. We should have finished. They were beaten. I do say. They will come. We had been playing. Thou hast been trifling. They are hastening. They might rejoice. You can speak.

I do speak. Thou art writing. He shall have commanded. We did read. You might work. They had finished. Thou hast heard. We may run. I had been sailing. You shall be walking. I might have been toiling. I can stop. He is injured. They were struck. He could have hastened. We have been rejoicing. They had been beaten.

Parse the following passages, not only naming the parts of Speech, but telling their Case, Tense, &c.

He is the temperate man, whose health directs his appetite; who is best pleased with what best agrees with him; who eats, not to gratify his taste, but to preserve his life; who is the same at every table as at his own; who when he feasts is not cloyed; and sees all the delicacies before him that luxury can accumulate, yet preserves a due abstinence amidst them.

La Roche was a protestant clergyman of Switzerland. He was a devout man, as became his profession. He possessed devotion in all its warmth, but with none of its asperity; I mean that asperity which men, called devout, sometimes indulge in. Affliction for the loss of a beloved wife brought on a long and lingering illness, for which

travelling was prescribed. His amiable daughter and only child was the companion of his travels. After an ineffectual and melancholy journey, he was returning home, when he was suddenly seized with a dangerous disorder, at a small town in France, where a celebrated British philosopher then resided.

The sorrow for the dead is the only sorrow from which we refuse to be divorced. Every other wound we seek to heal—every other affliction to forget; but this wound we consider it a duty to keep open—this affliction we cherish and brood over in solitude. Where is the mother who would willingly forget the infant that perished like a blossom from her arms, though every recollection is a pang? Where is the child that would willingly forget the most tender of parents, though to remember be but to lament? Who, even in the hour of agony, over whom he mourns? Who, even when the tomb is closing upon the remains of her he most loved; when he feels his heart, as it were, crushed in the closing of its portal; would accept of consolation that must be bought by forgetfulness?—No, the love which survives the tomb is one of the noblest attributes of the soul.

At last

The clouds consign their treasures to the fields;
And, softly shaking o'er the dimpled pool
Prelusive drops, let all their moisture flow
In large effusion o'er the freshened world.
The stealing shower is scarce to patter heard
By such as wander through the forest walk
Beneath the umbrageous multitude of leaves.
But who can hold the shade while Heaven descends
In universal bounty, shedding herbs,
And fruits, and flowers, on Nature's ample lap!
Swift Fancy, fired, anticipates their growth;
And while the milky nutriment distils,
Beholds the kindling country colour round!

I'll prove the word that I have made my theme, Is, that that may be doubled without blame, And that that that thus trebled I may use; And that that that, that critics may abuse, May be correct. Farther the Dons to bother, Five thats may closely follow one another! For be it known that we may safely write, Or say—That that that that that man writ was right! Nay ev'n, That that that that that that that followed Through six repeats, the grammar's rule has hallowed! And that that that—that "that" that that began Repeated seven times is right!—Deny't who can?

EXERCISES TO BE WRITTEN.



The Traveller.

Write sentences illustrating the inflections of the verb to have, in the indicative mood.

MODEL.

The traveller has his cloak drawn closely about him. He had a hat; but the wind blew it away. He has had hot sunshine on the plain; he will have rough winds to encounter in ascending the mountain; but when he shall have had the perseverance to reach the summit, all his toils will be amply rewarded.



A Sea Fight.

Write sentences illustrating the inflections of the verb to have in the potential mood.



The Eagle and the Tortoise.

Write sentences illustrating the inflections of the verb to have, in the imperative, subjunctive, and infinitive moods.



The Bear and the Travellers.

Write sentences introducing the participles of the verb to have.



The Dog and the Wolf.

Write sentences illustrating the inflections of the verb to be, in the indicative mood.



The Eagle, the Cat, and the Hog.

Write sentences illustrating the inflections of the verb to be, in the potential, and imperative moods.



The Shipwreck.

Write sentences illustrating the inflections of the verb to be, in the subjunctive mood.



The Fox and the Stork.

Write sentences introducing the participles of the verb to be.



A Battle.

Write sentences illustrating the inflections of regular verbs in the in dicative mood.



The General.

Write sentences illustrating the inflections of regular verbs in the potential mood.



The Assassin.

Write sentences illustrating the inflections of regular verbs in the subiunctive mood.



The Crow and the Pitcher.

Write sentences illustrating the inflections of regular verbs in the imperative and infinitive moods.



The Prisoner.

Write sentences illustrating the inflections of irregular verbs in the indicative mood.



The Stork and the Frogs.

Write sentences illustrating the inflections of irregular verbs in the potential mood.



A Battle.

Write sentences illustrating the inflections of irregular and regular verbs in the subjunctive mood.



Death of Wat Tyler.

Write sentences illustrating the inflections of irregular verbs in the imperative and infinitive moods.



The Wolf and the Crane.

Write sentences illustrating the participles of regular and irregular verbs.

III. DERIVATION.

167. Derivation is that part of Etymology which treats of the *Origin* and *Primary Signification* of Words.

[As this part of Etymology forms a distinct subject of study, in a great measure unconnected with the usual routine of grammatical instruction, it has been separated from the remainder of this Treatise, and thrown into the Appendix, for the greater convenience of Teachers and Pupils.]

PART III.

SYNTAX.

- 168. Syntax treats of the construction and arrangement of words in a sentence.
- 169. A Sentence is a number of words so arranged as to form a complete proposition.
 - Thus the words, "A boy too fond of play," do not form a sentence, because they do not contain a distinct proposition. But, "A boy too fond of play often neglects his lessons," is a sentence.
 - 170. Sentences are divided into Simple and Complex.
 - 171. A simple sentence consists of one proposition; as,
 - "Time flies swiftly." "The music of birds and the perfume of flowers filled the grove."
- 172. A complex sentence consists of two or more propositions combined, and the propositions of which it is composed are called *members*, or *clauses*; as,
 - "James, though he had read many books, was not a good scholar."
- 173. The clauses of a complex sentence are either principal or parenthetical.
- 174. The *principal* clause contains the leading proposition of the sentence, upon which the other clauses or members depend.
- 167. What is derivation? 168. What is Syntax? 169. What is a sentence? 170. How are sentences divided? 171. What is a simple sentence? 172. What is a complex sentence? 173. How are the clauses of a complex sentence divided? 174. What is the principal clause?

- 175. A parenthetical, or secondary clause, is that which depends on the principal clause, and generally modifies its meaning. Thus in the following sentences the clauses in italics are parenthetical:—
 - "If George would be studious, he would gain the prize. He fails, because he is indolent."
- 176. Parenthetical or dependent clauses are sometimes divided into Adjective, Relative, Participial, Connective, Interjective, Absolute, &c.
 - 177. An adjective clause is introduced by an adjective; as,

 "A man, diligent in his business, prospers."
- 178. A relative clause is introduced by a relative pronoun; as,
 - "A man, who is diligent in his business, prospers."
 - 179. A participial clause is introduced by a participle; as, "A man, devoted to his business, prospers."
 - 180. A connective clause is introduced by a conjunction; as,
 - "A man will generally prosper, if he be attentive to his business."
- 181. An absolute clause is independent of the rest of the sentence, in grammatical construction, as it includes what is called the Nominative Case Absolute; as,
 - "The lecture being ended, the audience departed."
 - 182. A sentence is composed of a Subject and a Predicate.
- 183. The *subject* of a sentence is that concerning which something is affirmed in the sentence.
- 184. The *predicate* expresses that which is affirmed of the subject:
 - Thus, in the sentence, "The man walks," "the man" is the subject, and "walks" is the predicate.
 - A distinction is made between the grammatical and the logical subject

^{175.} What is a parenthetical clause? 176. How are parenthetical clauses divided? 177. What is an adjective clause? — Give an example. Why is this an adjective clause? 178. What is a relative clause? — Give an example. Why is this a participial clause? — Give an example. Why is this a participial clause? — Give an example. Why is this a participial clause? 180. What is a connective clause? — Give an example. Why is this a connective clause? — Give an example. Why is this an absolute clause? — Give an example. Why is this an absolute clause? 182. What are the elements of a sentence? 183. What is the subject of a sentence? 184. What is the predicate of a sentence? — Give examples. What distinc-

of a proposition. The grammatical subject of a proposition is the leading nominative case of the sentence which expresses the proposition. The logical subject includes the nominative case, and the word or words by which its meaning is limited or modified.

- 185. The subject may be expressed: —
- 1. By a single noun; as,
 - "George reads."
- 2. By two or more nouns; as,
 - "George and Henry read."
- 3. By a pronoun or pronouns: as,
 - "I walk." "You and I are friends."
- 4. By a noun, joined with other words, to limit or modify its meaning; as,
 - "A careful and studious boy will excel."
 - "A man in a passion forgets the dictates of reason."
- 5. By the infinitive: as,
 - " To deceive was his object."
- 6. By sentences, and clauses of sentences; as,
 - "" Remember St. Bartholomew, was passed from man to man."
 - "To gain freedom was the grand object."
- In all these instances the words printed in Italics are complex names of the subject spoken of in their respective sentences. They are therefore equivalent to nouns; and were there single words in the language capable of expressing them, these words would be nouns.
- 186. The *predicate* of a sentence must always contain one verb: it may contain more than one, besides other parts of speech.

The following are instances of verbs, and restrictive clauses, used as predicates; —

- "The army retreated."
- "The army retreated in disorder."
- "The army retreated in disorder, leaving its baggage and wounded in the hands of the enemy."
- 187. When the verb of the sentence is transitive, it has joined with it a word or words describing the *object* of the verb; as,

tion is made? 185. How may the subject be expressed? 186. What must the predicate contain? — Give examples. 187. When the verb of the sentence is transitive, what has it joined with it? 188. How

" John shot the bird."

"The knight claimed his prisoner."

188. The object is often expressed by an infinitive, and also by a sentence or part of a sentence; as,

" William loves to learn."

"We should remember that we are fallible."

RULES OF SYNTAX.

189. The Rules of Syntax respect either the construction or the arrangement of words in a sentence.

Construction respects the form which words assume, in order to combine grammatically with other words in the same sentence.

Arrangement respects the order in which words stand in a sentence.

I. RULES OF CONSTRUCTION.

SUBJECT AND VERB.

- 190. Rule I. The subject of a sentence, when a noun or pronoun, is always in the nominative case; and the verb is always of the same number and person with its subject.
 - I. When the subject, or nominative, denotes only one thing, the verb is put in the singular; as,
 - "John speaks eloquently."
 - "He is mistaken."
 - "John or James intends to accompany me."*
 - "Cæsar, as well as Cicero, was remarkable for his eloquence."
 - "Either he or she is wrong."
 - "To forgive is divine."
 - "That such a misfortune should befall your house, and mar your prospects, grieves me exceedingly."
- * It is an error to say, as is commonly done, that when different subjects are disjoined by a conjunction they are always followed by a verb in the singular; for the predicate may be applied to the different subjects, and therefore may contain a plural verb. Thus we usually say, "Neither you nor I are in fault," not "'is' or 'am' in fault." The Latin idiom is the same: "Id neque ego, neque tu, fecimus."

may the object be expressed? 189. What do the rules of syntax respect? What does construction respect? What does arrangement refer to? 190. What is the rule for the nominative case and the verb? — Give examples. When is the verb in the singular? —

- 2. When the subject, or nominative, denotes more than one, the verb is put in the plural; as,
- "The birds carol."
- "They are mistaken."
- "Demosthenes and Cicero were great orators."
- "Honour, justice, religion itself, were derided by these profligate wretches."
- "He and she go in company."
- "To be temperate in eating and drinking, to use exercise in the open air, and to preserve the mind free from tumultuous emotions, are the best preservatives of health."
- Collective nouns are followed by a verb in the singular or plural, according as the idea of unity or plurality is meant to be expressed; as,
 - "The army is on its march."
 - "The clergy are divided among themselves."

The person of the subject, or nominative, determines the person of the verb; as,

- "I am at my post."
- "Thou shalt not steal."
- "John reads his lesson."

Nouns are always of the third person, except when they are employed to name the person addressed; in which case they are of the second person; as,

"Our Father who art in Heaven."

Relative pronouns are of the same person with their correlatives; as,

- "I who am now present."
- "Thou, Lord, who knowest the heart."
- "The Lord who seeth us."

Infinitives, and parts of sentences which are employed as nominatives to verbs, are always reckoned of the third person; as,

- "To be afraid to do evil is true courage."
- "For sinners to be proud is the height of inconsistency."

OBJECT.

191. Rule II. The object of a transitive verb, when expressed by a noun, or pronoun, is put in the objective case; as,

When is the verb in the plural?—Give examples. What is the rule for collective nouns?—Give examples. What determines the person of the verb?—Give examples. When are nouns in the second, and when in the third person?—Give examples. What is the rule for the person of relative pronouns?—Give examples. In what person are infinitives, and parts of sentences, when employed as nominatives?—Give examples. 191. What is the rule for the object? 192. What is the

"If ye love me, keep my commandments."

"This is the man whom the king delighteth to honour."

NOUNS AND PRONOUNS.

- 192. Rule III. When two nouns, or a noun and pronoun are used to denote the possessor and the thing possessed, the name of the possessor is put in the possessive case; as,
 - "In my Father's house."

"On eagles' wings."

"Thine is the kingdom."

- "The child whose father is dead."
- 1. When the name of the possessor is a complex noun, or a noun made up of two or more words, the last mentioned word only receives the sign of the possessive case; as,
 - "Julius Casar's Commentaries."
 - "John the Baptist's head."
 - "Oliver & Boyd's printing-office."
- 2. The name of the thing possessed, when it is obvious, is often omitted; as,
- "He went to see St. Peter's, at Rome;" that is, St. Peter's Church.
- "I am going to the magistrate's;" that is, the magistrate's house.
- 193. Rule IV. Nouns or personal pronouns, when added to other nouns or pronouns, to explain them, are put in the same case with them by apposition; as,
 - "Paul the Apostle wrote to the Romans."
 - "The leader was taken, he who defied the law."
 - "Brutus killed Cæsar, him who had been his friend."
- 194. Rule V. Pronouns agree with their correlatives in gender, number, and person; as,
 - "The queen put on her royal apparel."
 - "The river is swollen; it overflows its banks."
 - "The trees have lost their foliage."
 - "Thou who art mighty."
 - "The boy who writes the letter."
 - "The letter which* is written."
- * Formerly which was used in the masculine and feminine, as well as in the neuter gender, and consequently joined with persons as well

rule respecting the possessive case? What is the rule for complex nouns? When is the name of the thing possessed omitted? 193. What is the rule for apposition? — Give examples. 194. What is the rule for pronouns, and their correlatives? — Give examples. What is

When the correlative of the pronoun is a clause, or part of a sentence, the pronoun is put in the neuter gender, singular number, and third person; as,

"It grieves me to hear of your illness."

- "She was over indulgent to her children, which is a sin."
- 2. When a pronoun relates to two nouns or pronouns in different persons collectively, it takes the first person plural in preference to the second, and the second in preference to the third; as,

"He and I shared it between us."

"You and John are welcome; I rejoice to see you both."

"You and he and I have our difficulties."

"You and he have your doubts."

195. Rule VI. The pronoun it, when the nominative to a verb, is often used indefinitely, and is applied to persons as well as to things; to the first person and second, as well as to the third; and to a plural as well as to a singular; as,

"It is the king."

"It is I, be not afraid."

"It was you who did it."

"It is these fetters that vex me."

196. Rule VII. The adjective pronouns this and that, agree in number with the nouns which they describe; as,

"This book," "that map," "these books," "those maps."

This rule is violated in such expressions as, "these kind of people," "those sort of things."

- Every, though generally construed with a singular noun, is joined to a plural noun when the things it denotes are conceived as forming an aggregate; as, "every twelve years," that is, every period of twelve years.
- All is joined with a singular noun, when it refers to quantity, and with a plural noun when it refers to number; as,

"Six days shalt thou labour and do all thy work."

"All men are mortal."

as things. Such expressions as "mighty men which were of old," are common in the authorized version of the Scriptures; indeed, there are not many instances in the English Bible of who, applied to persons.

the rule when the correlative of a pronoun is a clause or part of a sentence? — Give examples. What is the rule when a pronoun refers to two nouns or pronouns in different persons? — Give examples. 195. What is the rule respecting the pronoun it? — Give examples. 196. What is the rule respecting this and that? — Give examples. How is this rule violated? What is the remark respecting every? — Give examples. — What is the remark respecting all? — Give examples.

- 3. Many, though significant of plurality, is sometimes construed with a noun in the singular; as,
 - "Many a flower is born to blush unseen."
- 4. More, when the comparative of much, and denoting a greater quantity, is joined with a noun in the singular; but when the comparative of many, and denoting a greater number, it is joined with a noun in the plural; as, "more fruit;" "more men."

ARTICLE.

197. Rule VIII. The indefinite article, a or an, is prefixed to nouns in the singular number; as, a horse; an orange.

198. Rule IX. The definite article, the, may be prefixed to nouns in the singular or plural number; as, the horse, the oranges.

- 1. A, when combined with the numerals many and few, admits a noun in the plural; as, "a few persons, a great many men."
- A is used before words beginning with a consonant, the long sound
 of u, and vowels sounding like w. An is used before words beginning with a vowel or a silent h; as,
 - "A boy;" "a unicorn;" "many a one."
 - "An acorn;" "an hour."
- 3. When two or more nouns or adjectives, descriptive of the same thing, are joined together, the article is prefixed only to the first of them; if the nouns describe different things, the article is prefixed to each of them separately; as
- "I bought a black and white cow, which cost twelve pounds."
- "I bought a black and a white cow, which cost each twelve pounds."

VERBS.

199. Rule X. Some transitive verbs, as, give, tell, send, promise, allow, admit two objective cases after them, the one denoting the object and the other the person; as,

What is the remark respecting many? — Give examples. — Respecting more? — Give examples. 197. What is the rule respecting the indefinite article? — Give examples. 198. What is said of prefixing the definite article? — Give examples. What is the rule for the article with respect to two or more nouns or adjectives descriptive of the same thing? — Give examples. 199. What is the rule for two objective cases after a transitive verb? — Give examples. What is the rule for an

- "He gave it me."*
- "He sent it us."
- "He allowed me great liberty."*
 - "He promised us many benefits."*

The same verbs, especially in colloquial discourse, admit an objective case after the passive voice; as,

- "I was allowed great liberty."
- "She was offered them by her mother."
- "He was forbid the presence of the king."

200. Rule XI. The verb to be has the same case after it as before it; as,

- "It is I, be not afraid."
- " It is he."
- "You believed it to be him."
- " Whom do they represent me to be."

201. Rule XII. The *infinitive* of a verb is always preceded by the sign to, except when it follows the verbs, bid, dare, feel, hear, let, need, make, see, or the generic verbs, may, can, shall, will, and must; as,

- "He ordered me to hasten."
- "He bade me go."
- "I saw him strike the boy."

Dare, when it signifies to challenge or defy, is also construed with to; as,

"I dare thee but to breathe upon my love."

In the English version of the Bible, the verb to make is similarly construed; as,

"He maketh his sun to rise."

202. Rule XIII. Participles, when they retain the sense of the verb, are construed as the verbs to which they belong; but when they are employed as nouns, they are followed by of; as,

- "He is well situated for gaining wisdom."
- "He is well situated for the gaining of wisdom."

^{*} It is not improbable that all these expressions are elliptical; the preposition to being understood before the personal pronouns.

objective case after a passive verb? — Give examples. 200. What case has the verb to be after it? — Give examples. 201. When is the infinitive not preceded by the sign to? — Give examples. What is said of dare? — Of make? 202. What is the rule for participles? — Give

203. Rule XIV. Participles, when used as nouns, or as parts of complex nouns, are frequently preceded by a noun or pronoun in the possessive case; as,

"I am averse to the nation's involving itself in war."

204. Rule XV. When a noun or pronoun is joined with a participle, without being dependent on any other word in the sentence, it is put in the nominative case; as,

"We being exceedingly tossed, they lightened the ship."

This construction is commonly called the nominative absolute.

The imperfect participle, without being connected with a noun or pronoun, often introduces an absolute clause, as an adjunct to a sentence; as,

"Generally speaking, the people are industrious."

"It is not possible to act otherwise, considering the weakness of our nature."

The infinitive is also sometimes used in an absolute, or independent sense; as,

" To speak the truth, we are all liable to error."

PREPOSITIONS.

205. Rule XVI. The *object* of a preposition, when expressed by a noun or pronoun, is put in the *objective* case; as,

"He came behind me."

"The man with whom you are acquainted."

The preposition to is often omitted, especially after the adverbs nigh, near, &c., and before the personal pronouns; as,

"He came near the city," that is, "near to the city."

"He sent me the book," that is, "to me."

CONJUNCTIONS.

206. Rule XVII. Conjunctions connect nouns and pronouns in the same case; as,

"You and I are schoolfellows."

"The master struck him and not me."

examples. 203. When does a participle govern the possessive case?—Give examples. 204. What is the rule for the nominative case absolute?—Give examples. 205. What is the rule for prepositions governing the objective case?—Give examples. When is to omitted?—Give examples. 206. What do conjunctions connect?—Give examples.

"You may do it as easily as I."

"He will as soon punish you as me."

"You are older than I."

"I love you better than him."

"Better it should be yours than mine."

Than was formerly used as a preposition, and took an objective case after it. When joined with a relative pronoun, it still retains its character of preposition; as,

"Alfred, than whom a better king never reigned."

207. Rule XVIII. Some conjunctions are employed as correlatives to each other; thus,

Both is followed by and; as, "Both you and I did it."

Either, by or; as, "I will either come or send."

Neither, by nor; as, "Neither John nor James is fit for it."

Though or although, by yet; as, "Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him."

Whether, by or; as, "Whether he go or stay."

In like manner, the conjunction that follows the adverb so, and the adjective such, when it denotes "so great;" as,

"You have so incensed him that he will punish you."

"Their arrogance was such, that even good men turned away in disgust."

The adverbs not only, and not merely, are often followed by the conjunction but, in connexion with also or likewise; as,

"He was not only harmless, but he was also wise."

208. Rule XIX. The generic verbs are often omitted before specific verbs, when preceded by the conjunctions, if, though, unless, &c.; as,

"Though he slay me," that is, "though he should slay me."

"If thou be afflicted, repine not," that is, "if thou shouldst be afflicted."*

^{*} Such phraseologies as, "he slay," "thou be," &c., are generally considered as indicating the subjunctive mood; that is, the form of the verb peculiar to clauses which are subjoined to others by means of the conjunctions, if, though, &c. But it is plain that these conjunctions exercise no influence over the verb. The reason of the peculiar form is, that the idea of contingency is present to the mind of the speaker or writer, and is meant to be expressed—(the same reason, indeed, that gives rise to the use of the conjunctions themselves in these cases.) Ac-

^{207.} What conjunctions are employed as correlatives? — Give examples. What is said of so and that? 208. When are the generic verbs

INTERJECTIONS.

209. Rule XX. Interjections are joined with the objective case of the pronoun of the first person, and with the nominative of the pronoun of the second; as, "Ah me!" "Oh ye hypocrites!"

EXERCISES ON CONSTRUCTION.

Distinguish between complete, and imperfect Sentences.

Sudden trust. Sudden trust brings sudden repentance. If the mountain will not go to Mahomet. If the mountain will not go to Mahomet, let Mahomet go to the mountain. If it were not for hope. If it were not for hope, the heart would break. In a calm sea. In a calm sea, every man is a pilot. The easiest way to dignity. The easiest way to dignity is humility. When bread is wanting. When bread is wanting, oaten cakes are excellent. Mildness governs more. Mildness governs more than anger. Deride not the unfortunate. Wine has drowned more than the sea. Reprove thy friend privately; commend him publicly. Being reproved. Being reproved, James began to reform. The ship having sailed. The ship sailed. The ship having sailed, the insurance was effected.

Distinguish Simple from Complex Sentences; and, in the latter, Principal from Secondary Clauses.

Successful guilt is the bane of society. Depend not on fortune, but conduct. Idle folks have the most labour. If the counsel be good, no matter who gave it. He who teaches often learns himself. Where content is, there is a feast. Rewards and punishments are the basis of good government. He that lends to all who will borrow, shows great good will, but little wisdom. He that spares when he is young, may spend when he is old. If you wish a thing done, go; if not, send. Though James studies hard, he enjoys the play-hour. Having completed his lessons, he claims his recreation.

cordingly, the form of the verb is the same when contingency is expressed, whether the conjunctions be used or not. "Be you present, or be you absent, I will speak," is as grammatical as "Whether you be present or absent." Besides, it is to be observed, that when certainty, and not contingency, is expressed, the verb does not take this elliptical form, though preceded by if, though, &c.

omitted? — Give examples. 209. What is the rule for interjections? — Give examples.

Give their appropriate Names to the Secondary Clauses, in the following Sentences.

It is a poor art that maintains not the artisan. One that is perfectly idle is perfectly weary too, and knows not what he would have or do. He that gives to a grateful man, puts out to usury. A mechanic, well skilled in his trade, has his fortune in his hand. A rich man, careless in his expenditures, soon comes to poverty. The pilot, knowing the dangers of the coast, kept off the shore. The traveller, having explored the country, returned home. The enemy being fairly beaten, we kept the field.

Oh! sweet and beautiful is night, when the silver moon is high,
And countless stars, like clustering gems, hang sparkling in the sky,
While the balmy breath of the summer breeze comes whispering down
the glen,

And one sweet voice alone is heard - Oh! night is lovely then.

But when that voice in feeble moans of sickness and of pain, But mocks the anxious ear that strives to catch its sounds in vain, When silently we watch the bed, by the taper's flickering light, While all we love is fading fast—how terrible is night!

Distinguish between the Subject and the Predicate, in the following Sentences; also point out the Object, where it occurs.

The daylight is fading fast. The sun has set. Many hands make light work. To borrow on usury brings sudden beggary. The man that is happy in all things, is more rare than the Phœnix. Time flies swiftly. Time lost is never recovered. Church bells were brought into use in the beginning of the fifth century. The raisins brought from Damascus are remarkable for their size. George and I are in the same class. Wealth, honour, and ease, are the rewards of persevering industry. A conscience void of offence is a rich possession. A man came to the door, entered the house, and soon expelled the inmates. A great warrior, without a sense of justice, commits many wrongs. The love of praise is a powerful incentive to action. The great discoverer of America, with all his claims to the gratitude of his sovereign, was permitted to die in obscurity and want.

Sentences to be corrected. — (See Rule I.)

Many men is deceived by false appearances. The state of our affairs are very prosperous. There is, in fact, no servants in the house. Temperance and moderate exercise preserves health. Is your

father and mother at home? Either danger or fear have brought you here. Cæsar as well as Cicero were distinguished for eloquence. The navy form our natural bulwark, and have often proved our defence in time of peril. The youth is not so well educated in this country now as formerly. Either John or his brother go to town today. What avails the highest professions, if the life is not in accordance with them? A variety of circumstances are to be taken into account. My brother and him are tolerable scholars.

O thou my lips inspire,
Who touch'd Isaiah's hallowed lips with fire.

These are the men who makes long speeches. The terms are as moderate as is consistent with any profit. Has the goods been sold to advantage? America and thee did in each other live. To honour your parents, to reverence your teachers, and to be obliging to your school-fellows, is the sure way to preferment. Sorrows, like a flood, overwhelms me. The possession of our senses entire, of our limbs uninjured, of a sound understanding, of friends and companions, though often overlooked among the many blessings which we enjoy, deserve our liveliest gratitude.

Sentences to be filled up with Verbs.

two essential words in language. The first the noun. the verb, or word by which a thing named: the second the state or action of a thing. Fifty pounds of wheat which forty pounds of flour. The mechanism of clocks and unknown to the ancients. In him blended true dignity, with softness of manners. To live soberly, righteously, and godly, required of all men. Religion, vital religion, the religion of the heart, the true source of virtue. Without a holy life, what mere professions of excellence? Neither of them able to do otherwise. either of them then to blame? His wisdom, and not his riches. admiration. His having so often offended the reason why he so severely punished. The mother, with her family, left the neighbourhood. Their religion, as well as their manners, ridiculed. Town or country equally agreeable to me. Do thou, Lord, who above all, come to our aid. Will the Lord, who above all, come to our aid? That your conduct so inconsistent, most distressing. I am the general officer who the orders to-day. I who the orders to-day am a general officer.

Sentences to be corrected. - (Rule II.)

Such folly will ruin ye both. Who have I reason to love, if not my father? He and they we know; but whom are you? They, who worth and rank has exalted, deserves our respect. He sent they who he thought to belong to his party. He invited my cousin and I to spend the holidays at his house. They that I rebuke before all. You should punish the guilty person, not I who is innecent. Whatever others do, let you and I perform our part.

Sentences to be corrected. — (Rules II. to VII.)

The Duke's of Roxburgh forest. The king's of Great Britain's prerogative. Thy fathers virtue is not thine. It was the men, women. and children's lot to suffer much affliction. Moses rod was turned into a serpent. I called at the bookseller. I had the surgeon, the physician, and the apothecary's assistance. The king and queen put on his robes. Can any one be sure that their own trials will not overcome them. Behold the Moon! how brightly she shines; yet the light is not its own. He had a companion which corrupted him. The Despot was like a beast of prey, who destroys without pity. Spare thou them, O God, which confess their sins. There is not a state of Europe who does not keep a body of troops in their pay. John and you have taken it to themselves. My father and I enjoy their meal together. You have taken our portion from James and me; send it them immediately. They were the heretics that first began to rail. It were they that were the real offenders. Lie that book upon the table and there let it lay. He has laid in bed all the morning.

Sentences to be filled up with Pronouns. — (Rules II. to VII.)

You were told was he; but the truth is, was I. Who is that calls my name at this rate: I will punish , be he may. Females, duty it is not to mingle in public life, own part assigned . I do not think any one should incur censure for being tender of reputation. My brother and I love occupation. A friend has sent John and you the present, in token of his love to . He had an acquaintance poisoned his principles. The horse and his rider vesterday have departed to-day. They take the sun out of the take friendship out of it. She took goodly raiment, world was in the house, and put upon Jacob. He is a Nero, is another name for cruelty.

Sentences to be corrected. - (Rules VII. - VIII. - IX.)

This noble nation has, of all others, admitted fewer corruptions. I have not been from home this twenty years. These sort of person disregard public opinion. Instead of improving yourself, you have been trifling this two hours. How beautiful an house! it is a hospital for orphans. Every one of his letters bear this date. Every man's daily walk and conversation displays his character. Neither of these persons seem to think it possible for them to err. Each in their turn receives the benefits to which they are entitled. These are the kind of enjoyments that good men aspire after. He pronounced an eulogium upon the departed statesman. Each of us have got some money. None of the British soldiers were able to do it.

Sentences to be corrected. — (Rules X. — XVI.)

He is really the person who he appears to be. It may be him, but it cannot be me. I understood it to be he. It might have been her; but there is no proof of it. I know not who has done this kindness to me, unless it be him who has so often assisted me before. It is better live on little than outlive a great deal. I need not to solicit to do a kind action. This was betraying of the trust reposed in him. I cannot help regarding him as an enemy, and thou as a deceitful friend. He prepared them for the event by sending early intelligence. By reading of good books, we are sure to improve both our mind and our morals. Him who was the most powerful having been defeated, the conquest of the rest was easy.

The bleating sheep with my complaints agree, Them parched with heat, and me inflamed by thee.

Sentences to be corrected. — (Rule XVI.)

It is for I that the gift is intended. It is not you who I am displeased with. Do you know who you speak to? What fellowship ought there to be between ye, who are holy, and they who are wicked? From he that is needy turn not away. Who didst thou obtain such strange information from?

Sentences to be corrected. — (Rules XVII. — XVIII. — XIX.)

A great intimacy subsist between him and I. You and me have enjoyed many a pleasant excursion together. Neither he nor her can answer. It is neither high or low. I must be so plain to tell you, that you have misapprehended it altogether. He was as distin-

guished in his profession as he imagined. He would not speak himself, nor let any other speak. So ill-informed is the boy, that he is qualified for nothing. I gained a son, and such a son as all men hailed me happy. There was something so touching in the manner in which he told his misfortunes, as affected me more than I can express. If he does but touch the mountains, they will smoke. Though he robs me of my all, I shall not be able to hate him. If a man smite his servant, and he dies, he shall surely be put to death. Though God be high, yet he hath respect to the lowly.

MISCELLANEOUS EXERCISES ON CONSTRUCTION.

Correct the Errors in the following Sentences.

Self-denial, and devotedness to God, is the soul of real religion. Neither of them are to be dispensed with. The story was no sooner told, but it was universally believed. All the power of ridicule, and by the desertion of friends, and the loss of his estate, were not able to conquer his spirit. Be ready to assist such deserving persons who appear to be destitute of friends. Every friend who we confide in change but God. It is not the uttering or the hearing certain words that constitute prayer to God. The climate of England is

not so pleasant as those of France, Spain, or Italy.

The concourse of people were so great as that with great difficulty we passed through them. He has already made great progress in his studies; and, if his diligence continues, he will soon fulfil the expectations of his friends. It is amazing his propensity to this vice, against every principle of interest and honour. Whether virtue advances our worldly interest or no, we must follow her dictates. I have seldom seen such a beautiful flower. I have seldom seen so beautiful flowers. I doubt not but that he will fulfil his promise. On your future conduct depend your future happiness or misery. Was you present when the detail of his toils and sufferings were laid before the meeting? Lycurgus, the Spartan lawgiver, he forbade the coining any metal more precious than iron. By the pupil's attainments are the preceptor honoured, and the pupils themselves encouraged. Not one in a hundred of those who scoff at the Gospel of Christ, know what it is they scoff at. Virtue pursues the lofty tenor of its ways, whatever be the difficulty that encompasses it; and sooner or later it will have its reward. The more I see of his character, I like him better. It is not only the interest, but duty of youth to reverence their parents. The captain had several men died in his ship. The Chinese language contains an immense number of words; who, therefore, would learn them must possess a powerful verbal memory. The sacrifices that virtue makes will not only be rewarded hereafter, but recompensed even here. There is nothing men are more ignorant of, or which they less understand, than their own characters. This is one of the Divine precepts which is entitled to special reverence.

Death's sable shades at once o'ercast their eyes, In dust the vanquished and the victor lies.

Though the manner of Thucydides be dry and harsh, yet, on great occasions, he display vast powers of description.

Supply the Blanks in the following Paragraphs.

I yesterday passed the whole afternoon in the churchyard, amusing with the tombstones and inscriptions I met with, Most of them recorded nothing else of the buried person, that he born upon one day, and upon another; the whole history of his life comprehended in those two circumstances, that mankind. I could not but look upon common to brass or marble, as a kind of these registers of existence, satire upon the departed persons, had left no other memorial. that they they died. born and

When I look upon the tombs of great, every emotion of envy dies in : when I read the epitaphs of the beautiful, every inormeet with the grief of parents dinate desire out; when upon a tombstone, heart with compassion; when I see the tomb of the parents , I consider the vanity of grieving for those we must quickly follow: when I see kings lying by those who deposed them, I consider rival wits placed side by side, or the holy men that divided the world with contests and disputes, reflect, with sorrow and astonishment, on the little competitions, factions, and debates of mankind. When I read the several dates of the tombs, - of some died vesterday, and some six hundred years ago, I consider great day when we all of be contemporaries, and our appearance together.

Whatever the dispositions, the faculties of the child, whelater in life, the business of father nor ther earlier well, without the co-operation of masters can proceed wisely the mother. Who knows so well as the road to the understanding, the road the heart? Who has skill like , to encourage the timid and repress the ? has power and address like a mother's subdue the stubborn and confirm the irresolute? Who with such exquisite art draw out, put in motion, and direct ordinary or superior powers; place goodness in attractive light, and expose in its most hideous and

forbidding form? In the case of those persons have unhappily deviated from the path of virtue, how many been stopped, converted, brought back, by consideration of maternal feelings, and the recollection of early lessons, and principles, and resolutions! Having been trained up, when a child, in the way wherein should walk, the man calls to remembrance in old age, returns to , and from no more.

Hyenas generally inhabit caverns, and other rocky places, they issue, under cover of the night, to prowl for food. They

gregarious, not so much from any social principle, from a greediness of disposition, and a gluttonous instinct, which many to assemble even over a scanty and insufficient prey. They are said devour the bodies they find in cemeteries, and to disinter as hastily or imperfectly inhumed. seems, indeed, to be a peculiar gloominess and malignity of disposition in the aspect of the hyena, and manners, in a state of captivity, are savage and untractable. Like every other animal, however, is perfectly capable of being tamed.

EXERCISES TO BE WRITTEN BY THE PUPIL.



The Travellers.

Write simple sentences illustrative of this picture.

MODEL.

The travellers have found a purse. They will divide the money. One of the travellers holds the purse. He is kneeling. The other traveller claims his part. They may quarrel. Money is the source of many contentions.



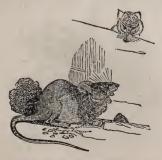
Æsop and the Boys.

Write simple sentences illustrating this picture.



The Prince instructed.

Write simple and complex sentences illustrative of this picture.



The Fox and the Rat.

Write complex sentences illustrative of this picture, introducing some of the different kinds of complex sentences, as adjective, relative, &c.



The two Pots.

Write sentences illustrating Rule I. (the Subject and the Verb).



The Prince shown to the People by the King.

Write sentences illustrating the second observation under Rule I.



A General leading an Army to Battle.

Write sentences illustrating the third observation under Rule I., respecting collective nouns.



Birds of Prey.

Write sentences illustrating Rule II. (Object).



The Rescue.

Write sentences illustrating Rule III. (Possessive case).



Execution of Lady Jane Grey.

Write sentences illustrating Rule IV. (Apposition).



The Prisoner in danger.

Write sentences illustrative of Rule V.



Labour and Rest.

Write sentences illustrative of Rule VI.



An Engagement at Sea.

Write sentences illustrative of Rule VIII.



The Fox and the Frog.

Write sentences illustrative of Rule IX.



King John signing Magna Charta.

Write sentences illustrating Rule X.



The Petitioner.

Write sentences illustrative of Rule XI.



Death of Cardinal Wolsey.
Write sentences illustrative of Rule XII.



A windy Day.

Write sentences illustrative of Rule XIII.

MODEL.

The man could not prevent the wind from taking off his wig. This will teach him the necessity of tying it on securely. He will be tired of running after it. He holds up his cane for the purpose of catching it.



The Wolf and the Lamb.
Write sentences illustrative of Rule XIV.



War.

Write sentences illustrative of Rule XIV.



The Country Mouse entertaining the Town Mouse.

Write sentences illustrating Rule XV.



The Dead Bird.

Write sentences illustrative of Rule XVI.



Edward, the Black Prince, with his Prisoner, the King of France.

Write sentences illustrative of Rule XVII.



The Culprit.

Write sentences illustrative of Rule XVIII.



The Captive.

Write sentences illustrative of Rules XIX., and XX.

II. RULES OF ARRANGEMENT.

210. The words of a sentence may be arranged either in the *Conventional* or *Rhetorical* order.

211. The *Conventional Order* is that arrangement of words which is most usual in the language.

212. The *Rhetorical Order* varies from the usual arrangement, for the purpose of rhetorical effect.

The conventional order is best suited for the ordinary purposes of speech; as, narration, description, and reasoning.

The rhetorical order is generally dictated by passion, emotion, or fancy, and belongs to the higher efforts of eloquence or poetry, or to those compositions where great attention is paid to rhetorical expression.

213. The following are some of the leading rules of arrangement.

SUBJECT AND VERB.

214. Rule XXI. In sentences conventionally arranged, the subject or nominative case precedes the verb, in all cases, except four; as, "James walks;" "Time is precious."

The following are the four exceptions to this rule:

1. When the sentence is interrogative; as,

"Are wealth and power necessary to happiness?"

2. When the sentence is imperative; as,

"Go thou to the prophet."

- 3. When the verb is preceded by there, here, hence, then, thus, yet, so, nor, neither, such, herein, therein, wherein, &c.; as,
 - "There was no rain."
 - "Here are the companies."
 - "Hence arise wars and convulsions."
- 4. A few phrases, such as, said he, replied they, are deviations from the general rule, which scarcely deserve notice.
- 215. Rule XXII. In sentences *rhetorically* arranged, the predicate often precedes the subject; as,
 - "Forgot were want, disease and death, by that impassioned throng."

^{210.} How may the words of a sentence be arranged? 211. What is the conventional order? 212. What is the rhetorical order? What is the conventional order suited for?—What is the rhetorical order suited for? 214. What is the twenty-first rule? What are the four exceptions? 215. What is the twenty-second rule? 216. What is

VERB AND ITS OBJECT.

216. Rule XXIII. In sentences conventionally arranged, the transitive verb generally precedes its object; as,

"I tread reviving passions down."

Exception I. When the object is a relative pronoun, it generally precedes the verb; as,

"I am the man whom you seek."

Exception II. When the object is preceded by such words as, whatever, whatsoever, &c. it precedes the verb; as,

"Whatever he designs, he accomplishes."

217. Rule XXIV. In *rhetorical* sentences, the object, when emphatic, precedes the verb; as,

"Thy fruit full well the school-boy knows,
Wild bramble of the brake!"

This inversion often takes place in poetry; as,

"But suddenly a holy awe the vengeful clamour still'd."

"The spotted pestilence with war, awhile the feast had shared."

POSITION OF ADJECTIVES.

218. Rule XXV. In *conventional* sentences the adjective is generally placed immediately before the noun which it qualifies; as,

"An old man." "A skilful physician."

There are four exceptions to this rule; viz.

1. When the adjective is used as a title; as,

"Peter the Great." "Charles the Twelfth."

- 2. When there are several adjectives joined with the same noun; as, "A statesman, honest, capable, and faithful."
- When the adjective is modified by other words; as, "A house full of people."
- 4. When the adjective expresses measure or extent; as, "A man six feet high." "A plain thirty miles square."
- 219. Rule XXVI. In *rhetorical* sentences, the adjective often begins the sentence; as,

"Dear is my little native vale."

"Sweet is the remembrance of a virtuous deed."

the twenty-third rule? — What are the exceptions? 217. What is the twenty-fourth rule? 218. What is the twenty-fifth rule? — What are the exceptions? 219. What is the twenty-sixth rule? 226. What is

POSITION OF PRONOUNS.

- 220. Rule XXVII. When the personal pronouns come together, the pronoun of the second person is placed before that of the third; and the pronoun of the first person is placed after those of the second and third; as,
 - "You and George may remain here, William and I will go to the city."
- 221. Rule XXVIII. The relative pronouns, with their clauses, must be placed as near as possible to their antecedents.

Thus, in these lines, the relative is too far removed from the antecedent:

"The rose had been wash'd, just wash'd in a shower, Which Mary to Anna convey'd."

POSITION OF THE INFINITIVE AND THE AUXILIARIES.

- 222. Rule XXIX. In conventional sentences the infinitive is placed after the verb on which it depends, though often separated from it by other words; as,
 - "I requested him to return."
 - "I requested him, if he valued my friendship, to return."
- 223. Rule XXX. In *rhetorical* sentences, the principal verb often precedes the auxiliary; as,
 - "Go you must, and go you shall, let the consequences be what they may."
 - "Have it he would, cost what it might."

POSITION OF ADVERBS.

224. Rule XXXI. In *conventional* sentences, adverbs should be placed as near as possible to the words they qualify. They are generally placed before adjectives, and often between the auxiliary and the principal verb; as,

"He was greatly mistaken."

the twenty-seventh rule? 221. What is the twenty-eighth rule? 222. What is the twenty-ninth rule? 223. What is the thirtieth rule? 224. What is the thirty-first rule? 225. What is the thirty-second rule?

[&]quot;John has never been in Rome."

225. Rule XXXII. Adverbs, when emphatical, may introduce a sentence, and be separated from the words they are intended to qualify; as,

"Onward he went, regardless of danger."

"Down, with a tremendous crash, fell the building."

POSITION OF PREPOSITIONS.

226. Rule XXXIII. The preposition is generally placed immediately before its object; but it is also not unfrequently placed after it, and even at a considerable distance from it; as,

"For all these actions you must account."

"All these actions you must speedily account for, before a high tribunal."

POSITION OF CONJUNCTIONS.

227. Rule XXXIV. The position of conjunctions varies, according as they connect sentences, or merely parts of sentences.

Such conjunctions as, than, if, though, that, lest, unless, &c. which connect clauses, but never sentences, take the first place in the clauses to which they refer; as,

"He is older than I."

"Though he came late, he was in season for the entertainment."

Monosyllabic conjunctions, except then, are placed at the beginning of the second sentence; as,

"He was undoubtedly an excellent scholar; but his acquaintance with the Oriental languages was not extensive."

"Your success will depend on your own exertions; see, then, that you are diligent."

Conjunctions of more than one syllable, with the exception of whereas, may be placed either at the beginning of the sentence or not, as the sound may seem to require; as,

"He was learned and honest. *Moreover*, he was well skilled in all lighter accomplishments. It is not surprising, *therefore*, that he should have received the appointment. His success, *however*, is by no means certain."

^{226.} What is the thirty-third rule? 227. What is the thirty-fourth rule?

EXERCISES ON ARRANGEMENT.

Distinguish which of the following Sentences are arranged Conventionally, and which Rhetorically, giving the rules.

With many a snare abounds the path to bliss.

The path to bliss abounds with many a snare. Rouse all your courage. Was he intelligent?

Had he arrived in season, he would have heard the news.

Comes he with the sword or with the olive branch of peace?

Unnumbered are the blessings she bestows.

Cæsar conquered Britain.

His enemies he won by clemency.

Great conquerors purchase fame at a dear rate.

Great was his sorrow, when he heard the news.

Fallen art thou, O! Son of the Morning.

Bitterly did he mourn the loss of his friend.

Correct the improper collocation of the words in Italics, in the following Conventional Sentences.

Me he despises on account of my poverty.

There rivers are in that country.

The nation their king deposed without an error assigning, as a

If you me would oblige, desist from my friend calumniating.

From me injuring, to insult he proceeded.

Cool is the morning, me and George a walk would refresh.

I and William are classmates; Henry and you occupy the same room.

The town was invested by the army, which was surrounded by a lofty

The house was destroyed by fire which I occupied.

The country was covered with verdure completely.

You are ready to recite never.

Your lesson is not enough long.

Transpose the Prepositions in the following Sentences, in as many ways as the sense will admit.

I am the man whom you inquired for.

Of this conspiracy Cæsar had no knowledge.

From what country he came I never inquired.

To him I of my hard fate complained.

Such treatment I was not prepared for and it is treatment which I have never been accustomed to.

Point out, in the following Sentences, the conjunctions which connect sentences, and those which connect only parts of sentences; also the sentences and parts of sentences which they respectively connect.

He thought that he should arrive in season; but the rail-road cars ran off the track; and the whole train was delayed two hours. He arrived, however, in the course of the night.

If the cost were duly estimated beforehand, nations would seldom go

To become learned, you must be diligent; use, therefore, all the means within your reach for acquiring knowledge; for unless you are attentive to this matter now, in your youth, you will remain, to a certain degree, illiterate all your lifetime.

As you sow, so you will reap.

I would reply, if I thought his arguments sufficiently strong to require refutation; but he appears to me to have refuted himself.

Unless he will retire, I cannot remain in the room; but if he will go out, I will stay.

Though he was eloquent and learned, yet he was not a ready debater.

Plant of celestial seed, if dropp'd below,
Say in what mortal soil thou deign'st to grow:
Fair opening to some court's propitious shrine,
Or deep with diamonds in the flaming mine?
Twined with the wreath Parnassian laurels yield,
Or reap'd in iron harvests of the field?
Where grows! where grows it not? if vain our toil,
We ought to blame the culture, not the soil.

Convert, by transposition, the following Rhetorical Sentences into Conventional Sentences.

Great are their names! Honoured and revered be their memory!
Associated with Washington and Franklin, their glory is a precious possession, enriching our annals, and exalting the character of our country. Greater is the bright example they have left us. More precious the lesson, furnished by their lives, for our instruction.

From the charter of our independence, breathes a nobler counsel. To our republic belongs a happier province. Peace we would extend, but by persuasion and example, —the moral force by which alone it can prevail among the nations. Wars we may encounter, but it is in the sacred character of the injured and wronged.

High on the throne of royal state, which far Outshone the wealth of Ormus or of Inde, Or where the gorgeous East, with richest hand, Showers, on her kings barbaric, pearl and gold, Satan exalted sat.

Hence! loathed Melancholy, Of Cerberus and blackest midnight born, In Stygian cave forlorn,

'Mongst horrid shapes and shrieks, and sights unholy, Find out some uncouth cell,

Where brooding darkness spreads his jealous wings, And the night raven sings;

There, under ebon shades and low-brow'd rocks, As ragged as thy locks,

In dark Cimmerian desert ever dwell.

To him who in the love of nature holds Communion with her visible forms, she speaks A various language; for his gayer hours She has a voice of gladness, and a smile And eloquence of beauty, and she glides Into his darker musings, with a mild And gentle sympathy, that steals away Their sharpness, ere he is aware.

EXERCISES TO BE WRITTEN BY THE PUPIL.



The Deer.

Write conventional sentences illustrative of the twenty-first rule of arrangement.



Napoleon on St. Helena.

Write rhetorical sentences illustrative of Rule XXII.

MODEL.

Fallen is the mighty conqueror. Great was his success; but terrible were the calamities which he brought upon the nations: brilliant were his victories; but not less signal and complete were the reverses which terminated his career. Sad and gloomy must have been the thoughts which passed through his mind, as from his rocky prison he surveyed the wide and restless ocean—fit emblem of his boundless ambition, and of the turbulent times which made and marred his splendid fortunes.



Queen Victoria.

Write rhetorical sentences illustrative of Rule XXII.



The Pursuit.

Write conventional sentences illustrative of Rule XXIII



Herald forbidding a Duel.

Write rhetorical sentences illustrative of Rule XXIV.



A Fright.

Write sentences illustrative of Rule XXV.



The Highlander.

Write sentences illustrative of Rule XXVI.



A Conversation.

Write sentences illustrative of Rule XXVII.



Sport in the Garden.

Write sentences illustrative of Rule XXVIII.



The unstrung Bow.

Write sentences illustrative of Rule XXIX.



Dinner Time.

Write sentences illustrative of Rule XXX.



Fishing with Spears.

Write sentences illustrative of Rule XXXI.



The Ocelot.

Write sentences illustrative of Rule XXXII. 13 *



The Baboon.

Write sentences illustrative of Rule XXXIII.



The Lynx.

Write sentences illustrative of Rule XXXIV.

EXERCISES IN SYNTACTICAL PARSING.

"Those men, who destroy a healthful constitution of body by intemperance, and an irregular life, do as manifestly kill themselves, as those who hang, or poison, or drown themselves."

Mode of parsing the above sentence. .

Those is a demonstrative adjective pronoun, of the plural number, agreeing with the noun MEN.—Rule VII. (Recite the rule.)

MEN is a common noun, of the third person plural, and nominative

case to the verb do KILL. - Rule I.

Who is a relative pronoun, agreeing with its antecedent, MEN.—
Rule V. It is of the third person plural, and nominative case to the verb DESTROY.—Remark under Rule I.

Destroy is a regular active verb, of the indicative mood, present tense, third person plural, agreeing with its nominative who. — Rule I.

A, is an indefinite article, prefixed to the noun constitution. — Rule VIII.

Healthful is an adjective qualifying the noun constitution. — Rule XXV.

CONSTITUTION is a common noun, of the third person singular, and object of the verb DESTROY. — Rule II.

Or is a preposition.

Body is a noun of the third person singular, and object of the preposition of.—Rule XVI.

By is a preposition.

INTEMPERANCE is a common noun, of the third person, singular number, and object of the preposition by. — Rule XVI.

And is a conjunction connecting the nouns intemperance and life.

— Rule XVII.

An is an indefinite article, prefixed to the noun LIFE. - Rule VIII.

IRREGULAR is an adjective qualifying the noun LIFE. - Rule XXV.

LIFE is a common noun of the third person, singular number, and object of the preposition BY. — Rule XVI.

Do KILL is a regular active verb, of the indicative mood, present tense, emphatic form, third person plural, agreeing with its nominative MEN. — Rule I.

As is a conjunction, connecting its own clause of the sentence with the clause which follows. — Rule XXXIV.

Manifestly is an adverb, qualifying the verb do kill.—Rule XXXI. Themselves is a pronoun, compounded of them and the reciprocal pronoun selves.* It is of the third person, plural number, object of the verb do kill.—Rule II.

As is a conjunction, connecting its own clause of the sentence with the clause which precedes it.

THOSE is a demonstrative adjective pronoun, of the plural number, agreeing with MEN, understood. — Rule VII.

Who is a relative, agreeing with its antecedent Men, understood.— Rule V. It is of the third person plural, and nominative case to the verb hang.—Remark under Rule I.

Hang is an irregular active verb, of the indicative mood, present tense, third person plural, agreeing with who. — Rule I.

OR is a conjunction, connecting its own clause with that which precedes it.

^{*} See Section 119, p. 57.

Poison is a regular active verb, of the indicative mood, present tense, third person plural, agreeing with who, understood. — Rule I.

OR. (Parsed as above.)

Drown. (Parsed in the same manner as Poison.)

THEMSELVES. (Parsed as above, except that it is the object of DROWN.)

Parse the following sentences, giving the Rules of Syntax.

- "We find but few historians of all ages, who have been diligent enough in their search for truth; it is their common method to take on trust what they distribute to the public, by which means, a falsehood once received from a famed writer becomes traditional to posterity."
- "The punishment of criminals should be of use; when a man is hanged, he is good for nothing."
- "The morality of an action depends upon the motive from which we act. If I fling half-a-crown to a beggar with intention to break his head, and he picks it up and buys victuals with it, the physical effect is good; but with respect to me, the action is very wrong."
- "How difficult a thing it is to persuade a man to reason against his own interest, though he is convinced that equity is against him!"
- "The aim of education should be to teach us rather how to think than what to think rather to improve our minds, so as to enable us to think for ourselves, than to load the memory with the thoughts of other men."
- "No entertainment is so cheap as reading, nor any pleasure so lasting."
- "Read not to contradict and confute, but to weigh and consider. Some books are to be tasted, others to be swallowed, and some few to be digested; that is, some books are to be read only in parts; others to be read, but not curiously; and some few to be read wholly and with diligence and attention. Reading maketh a full man, conference a ready man, and writing an exact man."
- "To do an ill action is base; to do a good one, which involves you in no danger, is nothing more than common; but it is the property of a truly good man, to do great and good things, though he risk every thing by it."

A State.

What constitutes a state?

Not high-rais'd battlements, or labour'd mound,
Thick wall, or moated gate;

Not cities proud, with spires and turrets crown'd.

Nor bays and broad-arm'd ports,
Where, laughing at the storm, rich navies ride;
Nor starr'd and spangled courts,

Where low-brow'd baseness wafts perfume to pride. — No! — men, high-minded men,

With powers as far above dull brutes endued, In forest, brake, or den,

As beasts excel cold rocks and brambles rude; Men, who their duties know,

But know their rights; and, knowing, dare maintain, Prevent the long-aimed blow,

And crush the tyrant, while they rend the chain, —
These constitute a state;

And sovereign law, that state's collected will,
High over thrones, and globes elate,

Sits empress, crowning good, repressing ill. Smit by her sacred frown,

The fiend discretion, like a vapour sinks;
And e'en the all-dazzling crown

Hides his faint rays, and at her bidding shrinks.

Such was this heaven-lov'd isle,

Than Lesbos fairer, and the Cretan shore! — No more shall Freedom smile?

Shall Britons languish, and be men no more? Since all must life resign,

Those sweet rewards which animate the brave, 'Tis folly to decline,

And steal inglorious to the silent grave.

Sir William Jones.

Love of Fame.

The love of praise, howe'er concealed by art, Reigns more or less, and glows in every heart: The proud to gain it toils on toils endure, The modest shun it, but to make it sure; O'er globes and sceptres, now on thrones it swells, Now trims the midnight lamp in college cells. 'Tis Tory, Whig; it plots, prays, preaches, pleads, Harangues in senates, speaks in masquerades. It aids the dancer's heel, the writer's head, And heaps the plain with mountains of the dead; Nor ends with life; but nods in sable plumes, Adorns our hearse, and flatters on our tombs.

Young.

PUNCTUATION.

- 1. In speaking or reading a sentence, various pauses are made, for the purpose of making the construction and meaning more distinct to the hearer.
- 2. Punctuation is the marking of these pauses, by points, indicative of their length.
- 3. The principal points are the Comma (,), the Semicolon (;), the Colon (:), and the Period (.).
- 4. The Comma represents the shortest pause, and is often used to mark the construction where very little interruption of voice is allowable.
- 5. The Semicolon marks a longer pause than a comma, and separates clauses less closely connected.
- 6. The Colon marks a longer pause than the semicolon, and indicates a still looser connexion between the clauses which it separates.
- 7. The Period, or full point, is used at the end of a sentence, to indicate that it is completed.

COMMA.

- 8. Rule I. When a simple sentence is long, the subject and predicate each consisting of a number of words, a comma is placed between them; as,
 - "To be constantly apprehensive of unknown dangers, is a mark of a weak mind."
- 9. Rule II. When two or more words, whether nouns, adjectives, pronouns, verbs, or adverbs, are connected without the connecting word being expressed, the comma supplies the place of that word; as,
 - "Honour, duty, affection and interest required the act."
 - "He was honourable, dutiful, affectionate and wise."

^{1.} Why are pauses used? 2. What is punctuation? 3. What are the principal points used in writing? 4. Describe the Comma.—5. The Semicolon.—6. The Colon.—7. The Period. 8. What is the first rule for the use of the comma?—Give examples. 9. What is the second rule for the use of the comma?—Give examples. 10.

- "We should honour, reverence, love and defend our parents."
- "Give it to him, her or me."
- "You should conduct yourself honourably, dutifully, affectionately and discreetly in this matter."
- 10. Rule III. Absolute, relative, and, in general, all parenthetical clauses, are separated from the other parts of a sentence by commas; as,
 - "The clock having struck ten, the meeting was adjourned."
 - "The man, whom you met at the party, is a Frenchman."
 - "We were always successful, because we were careful."
 - "The war, even at the close, was not universally popular."
 - "He returns, I think, under very favourable auspices."
- 11. RULE IV. The modifying words and phrases, nay, however, hence, besides, finally, in short, at least, and the like, are usually separated by commas; as,
 - "The Romans understood liberty as well, at least, as we."
- 12. Rule V. Words denoting the person or object addressed are separated by commas; as,
 - "I write, my friend, in great distress of mind."
 - "Thy daughters, Columbia, are fair."
- 13. Rule VI. A word or phrase emphatically repeated is separated by commas; as,
 - "The people, the people, if we are true to them, will carry us, and will carry themselves, gloriously, through this struggle."
- 14. Rule VII. The words of another writer cited, but not formally introduced as a quotation, are separated by commas; as,
 - "Lord Bacon tells us that, He that hath wife and children, hath given hostages to fortune."
- 15. Rule VIII. Words and clauses, though closely connected in construction, are often separated by a comma, when contrast or opposition is expressed; as,
 - "He came full of hope, and returned disappointed."
- What is the third rule for the use of the comma? Give examples.

 11. What is the fourth rule? Give examples.

 12. What is the fifth rule? Give examples.

 13. What is the sixth rule? Give examples.

 14. What is the seventh rule? Give examples.

 15. What is

- 16. RULE IX. When the absence of a word is indicated in reading or speaking by a pause, its place may be supplied by a comma; as,
 - "Want creates discontent; discontent, sedition; sedition, anarchy; and anarchy, despotism."

SEMICOLON.

- 17. Rule I. When a sentence consists of two parts, the one containing a complete proposition, and the other added as an inference, or to give some reason or explanation, the two parts are separated by a semicolon; as,
 - "I cannot assent to the doctrine; for it is equally repugnant to religion and common sense."
- 18. Rule II. When a sentence consists of several members, each constituting a distinct proposition, and having a dependence upon each other or upon some common clause, they are separated by semicolons; as,
 - "He came immediately to the camp; inquired into the cause of the meeting; brought the ringleaders to trial; and did not abandon the affair, till they were all convicted and shot."

COLON.

- 19. Rule I. When a sentence consists of two parts, the one so complete in itself as to admit a full point, and the other containing an additional remark, depending upon the former in sense, though not in syntax, the connection of the remark with the preceding proposition is indicated by a colon; as,
 - "Painting is a noble art: it should be encouraged as a means of national glory."
- 20. Rule II. When a sentence, which consists of an enumeration of particulars, each separated from the other by a

the eighth rule? — Give examples. 16. What is the ninth rule for the use of the comma? — Give examples. 17. What is the first rule for the use of the Semicolon? — Give an example. 18. The second rule? — Give an example. 19. What is the first rule for the use of the Colon? — Give an example. 20. The second rule? — Give an exam-

semicolon, has its sense suspended till the last, that clause is disjoined from the preceding by a colon; as,

"If he has not been unfaithful to his king; if he has not proved a traitor to his country; if he has never given cause for such charges as have been preferred against him: why then is he afraid to confront his accusers?"

The colon is rarely used in composition. It may, for the most part, be dispensed with, without any great inconvenience.

PERIOD.

- 21. Besides being used to mark the completion of a sentence, the period is placed after initials, when used alone, as, D. D. for Doctor of Divinity; and after abbreviations, as, Lat., for Latin.
 - 22. The other marks most commonly used are the Dash (—), the point of Interrogation (?), the point of Exclamation (!), and the Parenthesis ().
 - 23. The Dash marks a break in the sentence, or an abrupt turn; as,
 - "Great distresses are silent penury depresses the spirits as it emaciates the body."
 - 24. The point of Interrogation is put after a sentence which asks a question; as,

"Is it fancy, or is it fact?"

25. The point of Exclamation is used after sudden expressions of emotion; as,

"Behold! I bring you glad tidings!"

- 26. The Parenthesis is sometimes used to enclose a remark or clause not essential to the sentence in construction, but useful in explaining it, or introducing an important idea; as,
 - "Let us, then (for we can no longer conceal the necessity of such a proceeding), enter at once upon a full investigation."

ple. 21. What are the uses of the period? 22. What are the other points and stops? — Explain their uses

EXERCISES ON PUNCTUATION.

Correct the Errors, and supply the Defects, in the following Sentences:

COMMA.

Politics, is the application of morals to social institutions.

The peculiar character of the doctrine of Confucius is that all, the duties of man are presented as various forms of domestic duties.

Plato; Epicurus; and Aristotle; were great, Grecian philosophers.

Irenæus Tertullian Origen and Clement; of Alexandria were fathers of the Church.

Time, and money, industry, and talent: were thrown away, in this useless pursuit.

He rose; like the sun; when he is shrouded in vapours, but he soon burst forth in meridian splendour.

SEMICOLON.

He often comes; to see me, but he seldom tarries long.

Parrots like all other hooked-clawed birds walk awkwardly, they make use of their bill as a third foot climbing and descending; with a ridiculous caution.

Owls move in a buoyant manner; as if lighter than the air, they seem to want ballast.

Most small birds hop, but wagtails and larks walk; moving their legs alternately.

Skylarks rise and fall; perpendicularly; as they sing, wood-larks hang poised in the air, and tit-larks rise and fall; in large curves; singing in their descent.

COLON.

He who possesses a treasure does not care to show it to all the world, he preserves it to use in time of need, you would do the same if you were a true sage.

Correct this fault, purge yourself from all desire of pleasure, this will make you much more useful than all you are trying to learn about the ancients.

Point the following Sentences:

We scarce believe a thing when we are told it which we actually see before our eyes every day without being the least surprised.

I suppose that there are in Great Britain upwards of a hundred thou-

sand people employed in lead tin iron copper and coal mines these unhappy wretches scarce ever see the light of the sun they are buried in the bowels of the earth there they work at a severe and dismal task without the least prospect of being delivered from it they subsist on the coarsest and worst sort of fare they have their health miserably impaired and their lives cut short by being perpetually confined in the close vapour of these malignant minerals. A hundred thousand more at least are tortured without remission by the suffocating smoke intense fires and constant drudgery necessary in refining and managing the products of these mines.

If any man informed us that two hundred thousand innocent persons were confined to so intolerable a slavery how should we pity the unhappy sufferers and how great would be our just indignation against those that inflicted so cruel and ignominious a punishment.

This is an instance I could not wish a stronger of the numberless things which we pass by in their common dress yet which shock us when they are nakedly represented.

But this number considerable as it is and the slavery with all its baseness and horror which we have at home is nothing to what the rest of the world affords of the same nature.

Nature has placed mankind under the governance of two sovereign masters Pain and Pleasure It is for them alone to point out what we ought to do as well as to determine what we shall do On the one hand the standard of right and wrong on the other the chain of causes and effects are fastened to their throne They govern us in all we do in all we say in all we think every effort we can make to throw off our subjection will serve but to demonstrate and to confirm it In words a man may pretend to abjure their empire but in reality he will remain subject to it all the while The principle of utility recognises this subjection and assumes it for the foundation of that system the object of which is to rear the fabric of felicity by the hands of reason and of law Systems which attempt to question it deal in sounds instead of sense in caprice instead of reason in darkness instead of light The happiness of the individuals of whom a community is composed that is their pleasures and their security is the end which the legislator ought to have in view the sole standard in conformity to which each individual ought as far as depends upon the legislator to be made to fashion his behaviour But whether it be this or any thing else that is to be done there is nothing by which a man can ultimately be made to do it but either pain or pleasure Plautus turned a mill Terence was a slave Boethius died in a jail Paul Borghese had fifteen different trades and starved with them all.

PART IV.

PROSODY.

- 1. Prosopy* is that part of grammar which treats of the structure of Poetical Composition.
- 2. Poetry differs in structure from prose chiefly in requiring a more measured arrangement of words, and in admitting greater license in the application of them.

3. The measured arrangement which distinguishes poetry from prose is called *Versification*.

4. The application of words, peculiar to poetry, is called *Poetical License*.

VERSIFICATION.

- 5. The harmony of Verse depends upon the regular recurrence, at fixed intervals, of syllables of a certain quantity.
 - 6. Syllables are either long or short, accented or unaccented.
- 7. A syllable is *long* or *short* according to the time occupied in pronouncing it; as, tūbe, tŭb.
- 8. A syllable is accented or unaccented according as stress of the voice is placed upon it in pronunciation; as, dete'r, i'njury.
- 9. The harmony of English verse depends chiefly upon the return at regular intervals of *accented*, and not of *long* syllables.
 - "Of ma'n's first di'sobe'dience a'nd the fru'it Of tha't forbi'dden tre'e, whose mo'rtal tas'te Brought de'ath into' the wor'ld and a'll our wo'."

10. It is only necessary to repeat any verse in English to per-

^{*} Prosody strictly denotes only that musical tone or melody which accompanies speech. But the usage of modern grammarians justifies an extremely general application of the term.

^{1.} What is Prosody? 2. How does poetry differ from prose? 3. What is Versification? 4. What is poetical license? 5. Upon what does the harmony of verse depend? 6. What is said of syllables? 7. Are syllables always long or short? 8. Are they always accented? 9. Upon what does the harmony of English verse depend?—10. How

ceive, that without the alternate percussion of accented and unaccented syllables it would not be harmonious. Thus:—

11. Some instances occur of harmony produced by the quantity alone, apart from accent; as,

"Fountains, and ye that warble as ye flow."
"For Eloquence the soul; Song charms the sense."

- 12. But such instances are few: the accent, in the vast majority of cases, determines the pronunciation, and consequently, the harmony of the line, without regard to the natural length of the syllables. Thus:—
 - "Hurl'd he'adlong fla'ming from th' ethe'real sky'."
- 13. A Verse is a measured line consisting of a certain number of regular returns of accented and unaccented syllables.
- 14. The number of accents in a verse determines the number of feet.
- 15. A foot consists generally of two, and sometimes of three syllables, one of which is always accented.
- 16. It is called *foot*, because it is by the aid of the accent which marks its principal syllable that we step along through the verse in a measured pace.
- 17. The principal feet are the *Iambus*, the *Trochee*, and the *Anapæst*.
- 18. An *Iambus* is a dissyllabic foot, having the accented syllable last; as, ado're.
- 19. A *Trochee* is a dissyllabic foot, having the accented syllable first; as, *no'ble*.
- 20. An Anapast consists of three syllables, the two first unaccented, and the last accented; as, interce'de.
- 21. Rhyme is the name by which we distinguish verses that are closed by final syllables of a similar sound; as,
 - "Hope, for a season, bade the world farewell,
 And Freedom shriek'd—as Kosciusko fell!"

is its harmony perceived? — Give an example. 11. Is harmony sometimes produced by quantity alone? — Give an example. 12. What does the accent determine? 13. What is a verse? 14. What does the number of accents determine? 15. What is a foot? 16. Why is it called foot? 17. What are the principal feet? 18. What is an Iambus? — 19. A Trochee? — 20. An Anapæst? 21. What is rhyme? — Give examples.

14*

"A king sat on the rocky brow
Which looks o'er sea-born Salamis;
And ships by thousands lay below,
And men in nations:—all were his!
He counted them at break of day—
And when the sun set—where were they?"

22. Verses which have not this similarity of sound in their final syllables are called *Blank Verse*; as,

"How still the morning of the hallow'd day!

Mute is the voice of rural labour, hush'd

The ploughboy's whistle, and the milkmaid's song;

The scythe lies glittering in the dewy wreath

Of tedded grass, mingled with fading flowers

That yestermorn bloom'd waving in the breeze."

23. Verses are distinguished by various names, according to the feet that prevail in them; as, *Iambic*, *Trochaic*, *Anapæstic*.

24. The two most common kinds of verse are the Iambic and Trochaic.

25. Iambic verse has the weak percussion first, and the loud last.

26. Trochaic verse has the loud first, and the weak last.

· IAMBIC VERSE.

27. (1.) The most common and also the most dignified verse in English poetry consists of five Iambic feet, or ten syllables; as,

"Depa'rt- | ed spi'r- | its o'f | the mig'h- | ty de'ad!
Ye who' | at Ma'r- | atho'n | and Leu'c- | tra ble'd!"

"Perha'ps | in thi's | neglec't- | ed spo't | is la'id |
Some heart once pregnant with celestial fire;
Hands, that the rod of empire might have sway'd,
Or waked to ecstasy the living lyre."

"How sw'eet | the moo'n- | light slee'ps | upon' | this ba'nk! |
Here will we sit, and let the sounds of music
Creep in our ears; soft stillness and the night
Become the touches of sweet harmony!"

22. What is Blank Verse? — Give an example. 23. How are verses distinguished? 24. Name the most common kinds. 25. Describe the Iambic verse. — 26. The Trochaic. 27. Give examples of Iambic verse

- 28. This measure, commonly called the *Heroic*, has a grave and majestic march, well suited to heroic argument, especially if it be not fettered with rhyme.
- 29. It admits of some freedom for the purpose of giving it variety, especially in the beginning and end of the line. The *first* foot is often a Trochee instead of an Iambus; and the *last* has often a short unaccented syllable appended to the Iambus. Thus:—
 - "Da'ughter | of God and man, accomplished Eve." |
 - "Ple'asures | the sex, as children birds pursue."
 - "'T is Heaven itself that points out an here'af- | ter." |
- 30. Sometimes even greater irregularities are admissible; as,
 - "Burnt after him to the bottomless pit."
- 31. A verse of six feet or twelve syllables, called an Alexandrine line, is occasionally introduced into heroic verse, especially at the close of a passage; as,
 - "Time writes no wrinkle on thine azure brow—
 Such as | Crea- | tion's dawn | beheld, | thou roll- | est now." |
- 32. (2.) A shorter Iambic verse is made from the former, by cutting off one Iambus, or two syllables; as,
 - "Thou, Ste'll- | a, wa'st | no lon'g- | er yo'ung, |
 When fir'st | for the'e | my ly're | I strung." |
 - "Thou ar't, O Go'd, I the li'fe | and li'ght |
 Of a'll | this wo'nd- | rous wo'rld | we se'e: |
 Its glow by day, its smile by night,
 Are but reflections caught from thee!"
- 33. This measure is sometimes varied, to adapt it to light subjects, by the addition of two syllables, forming a double rhyme; as,
 - "His braw'n- | y ba'ck | and sid'es | Hercu'l- | ean Support the star and string cerulean."

of five feet. —28. What is it commonly called? —29. How is it varied? —30. What are often admissible? 31. What is a verse of six feet called. — Give an example. 32. What is said of a shorter verse? — Give examples. 33. How is a double rhyme formed? — Give examples.

34. (3.) Iambic verse is sometimes further shortened into six syllables, by cutting off another foot; as,

"Though tho'u | the wa't- | ers wa'rp |
Thy sti'ng | is no't | so sha'rp." |

"In pla'c- | es fa'r | or ne'ar, |
Or fa'm- | ous o'r | obscu're, |
Where wholesome is the air,
Or where the most impure."

35. The four-lined stanza of Psalmody generally consists of alternate Iambic verses of four and three feet; as,

"Lord, tho'u | did'st love | Jeru's- | ale'm, |
Once she' | was a'll | thine ow'n: |
Her love thy fairest heritage,
Her power thy glory's throne."

36. A residuary syllable or half foot is often added to an Iambic line, for the sake of variety; as,

"And coun't- | less kin'gs | have i'n- | to du'st | been hu'mb- | led, While no't | a fr'ag- | ment o'f | thy fle'sh | has cr'umb- | led !"

"Waft, wa'ft | ye wind's | his sto' - | ry,
And on' | ye wa' | ters ro'll, |
Till, li'ke | a se'a | of glo' - | ry,
It sprea'ds | from po'le | to po'le !" |

TROCHAIC VERSE.

- 37. Trochaic verse is also of various lengths.
- 1. It sometimes contains six feet or twelve syllables; as,
- "O'n a | m'ountain | stretch'ed | be | ne'ath a | h'oary | w'illow, | Lay a shepherd swain and view'd the rolling billow."
- 2. It sometimes contains five feet or ten syllables; as,
 - "A'll that | wa'lk on | fo'ot or | ri'de in | ch'ariots; |
 All that dwell in palaces or garrets."
- 3. It sometimes contains four feet or eight syllables; as,
 - "On' they | ma'rch though | to' self- | sl'aughter, | Regular as rolling water."

^{34.} How is Iambic verse still further shortened? — Give examples, 37. Give examples of Trochaic verse of six feet. — Of five feet. — Of four

- 4. It sometimes contains three feet or six syllables; as,
 - "Or' where | He'brus | w'anders, | Rolling in meanders."
- 5. The Trochaic line most generally employed contains wree feet, and an additional syllable; as,
 - "Ro'me be | cr'ush'd to | o'ne wide | tomb,
 B'ut be | st'ill the | Ro'man's | Rome."
 - "Li'ke le- | vi'a- | tha'ns a- | float
 La'y their | b'ulwarks | o'n the | brine;
 While the sign of battle flew
 On the lofty British line."

ANAPÆSTIC VERSE.

- 38. In Anapæstic verse, the interval between the accented syllables is doubled, and the percussion falls on every third syllable.
- 39. Anapæstic verse is, in common with Iambic and Trochaic, of various lengths.
- 1. It sometimes consists of four feet or twelve syllables; as,
 - "From the kna'ves, | and the fo'ols, | and the fo'ps | of the ti'me; | From the drudges in prose, and the triflers in rhyme."
 - "And the w'id- ows of A'- shur are lou'd in their wa'il, And the idols are broke in the temple of Baal."
 - 2. It sometimes consists of three feet or nine syllables; as, "Who are the'y | that now bi'd | us be slave's? |
 They are fo'es | to the go'od | and the fre'e."
 - It sometimes consists of two feet or six syllables; as,
 "But his cou'r- | age 'gan fai'l, |
 For no a'rts | could avai'l."
- 40. Anapæstic verse admits of variety, as well as the Iambic and Trochaic, by taking an additional syllable at the end, and sometimes a dissyllabic foot at the beginning of the line; as,
 - "On the war'm | cheek of you'th | smiles and r'o- | ses are ble'nd- | ing." |

feet. — Of three feet. — Of three feet and one syllable. — 38. Describe Anapæstic verse. — Give examples of the different varieties of feet.

"But his cou'r- | age 'gan fa'il | him, | For no a'rts | could ava'il | him." |

"If e'er | in thy sigh't | I found fa'v- | our, Ap'ol- | lo, | Defe'nd | me from al'I | the dis'as- | ters that fo'l- | low."

41. Iambic, Trochaic, and Anapæstic feet all admit of occasional intermixture; and many beautiful passages in our poets cannot be scanned without the use of all of them.

The following are examples: -

"Rests secu're | the ri'gh- | teous ma'n: | At h'is | Redee'm- | er's be'ck, | Sure t' em'erge | and ri'se | agai'n, | And mo'unt | abo've | the wre'ck."

"And the're | lay the ri'd | er distor't | ed and pal'e, | With the de'w | on his bro'w | and the ru'st | on his ma'il." |

> "Awa'ke | 'tis the te'r | ror of war', | The crees | cent is tos's'd | on the wi'nd." |

POETICAL LICENSE.

42. The language of poetry admits of several peculiarities in its grammatical structure, in order to fit it the better for being formed into regular numbers.

1. Poetry admits of the use of words and phrases which

in prose would be accounted obsolete.

Such phrases give to poetical composition that rust of antiquity, which is a great beauty, if not carried so far as to make the diction uncouth and obscure.

- 2. Poetry admits of a bolder transposition of words than prose: the rhetorical arrangement being as much the usual order in the former as the conventional is in the latter.
- 3. Some words are lengthened by a syllable, and others abbreviated, to adapt them to the purposes of measured com-Thus, for part, the poets often use dispart; for position. chain, enchain; for morning, morn; for valley, vale.
- 4. Poetry admits of a liberal use of nouns for adjectives; as.

"Amid the greenwood shade this boy was bred."

42. What is Poetical License? Give instances with respect to obsolete words. - What is said as regards transposition? - What is said about lengthening and shortening words? Using nouns for adjectives?

- 5. In the use of conjunctions in pairs, nor is often substituted for neither, and or for either; as,
 - "To them nor stores nor granaries belong, Nought but the woodland and the pleasing song."
 - "Remote, unfriended, melancholy, slow,
 Or by the lazy Scheldt or wandering Po."
- 6. Poetry admits of great variety of elliptical expressions, and even allows the omission, in certain cases, of important parts of speech. Thus, two words are contracted into one; as, 'Twas, for It was; 'Tis, for It is; 'Twill, for It will; We'll, for We will.
- 43. Vowels and sometimes consonants are elided to run two syllables into one: as,
 - "T' alarm th' eternal midnight of the grave."
 - "Whate'er she hides beneath her verdant floor."
 - "The hunter-steed exulting o'er the dale."
 - "Till, at advantage ta'en, his brand
 Forced Rod'rick's weapon from his hand."
 - 44. Nouns are often omitted in interrogative sentences; as,
 - "Lives there who loves his pain?" that is, "Lives there a man."
- 45. Verbs are often omitted, especially such as express address or answer; as,
 - "To whom the monarch;" that is, "To whom the monarch said or replied."
 - 46. Prepositions are often omitted; as,
 - "He mourn'd no recreant friend, no mistress coy;" that is, "He mourned for no recreant friend," &c.

EXERCISES ON PROSODY.

Scan the following verses:--

The fiery courser, when he hears from far The sprightly trumpets and the shouts of war, Pricks up his ears, and, trembling with delight, Shifts place, and paws, and hopes the promised fight.

What is said respecting conjunctions? — Respecting Ellipses. 43. What is said of vowels and consonants? — 44. Of nouns? — 45. Of verbs? — 46. Of prepositions?

Should fate command me to the farthest verge Of the green earth, to distant barbarous climes, Rivers unknown to song; where first the sun Gilds Indian mountains, or his setting beam Flames on the Atlantic isles;—'t is nought to me, Since God is ever present—ever felt, In the void waste as in the city full; And, where He vital breathes, there must be joy.

No longer Autumn's glowing red Upon our forest hills is shed; No more beneath the evening beam Fair Tweed reflects their purple gleam; Away hath pass'd the heather-bell That bloom'd so rich on Needpath-fell; Sallow his brow, and russet bare Are now the sister heights of Yare.

Our native land—our native vale—
A long—a last adieu!

Farewell to bonny Teviotdale,
And Cheviot's mountains blue.

The battle-mound—the Border tower,
That Scotia's annals tell—

The martyr's grave—the lover's bower,
To each—to all—farewell!

Last came Joy's ecstatic trial:
He with ivy crown advancing,
First to the lively pipe his hand address'd;
But soon he saw the brisk awakening viol,
Whose sweet entrancing voice he loved the best.
They would have thought, who heard the strain,
They saw in Tempe's vale her native maids,
Amidst the festal sounding shades,
To some unwearied minstrel dancing;
While as his flying fingers kiss'd the strings,
Love framed with Mirth a gay fantastic round;
Loose were her tresses seen, her zone unbound,
And he, amidst his frolic play,
As if he would the charming air repay,
Shook thousand odours from his dewy wings.

APPENDIX.

DERIVATION.

Derivation is that part of Etymology which treats of the Origin and Primary Signification of words.

The words of a cultivated language, however numerous and apparently unconnected, are found on examination to be reducible to groups or families, and to be related to each other by identity of origin and similarity of signification.

Thus, the words, justly, justice, justify, justification, justiciary, adjust, re-adjust, unjust, injustice, &c. are all kindred words, connected with their common parent, just. In like manner, terrace, terraqueous, terrene, terrestrial, terrier, territory, inter, interment, disinter, Mediterranean, subterranean, &c. are all connected with their parent, terra, the earth.

Words are either Primitive or Derivative.

A *Primitive* word is not derived from any simpler word in the language; as, man, just.

A Derivative word is formed from some word of greater simplicity; as, manhood, unjust.

The primitive words of a language are always few compared with the whole amount of its vocabulary.

The primitives of the Greek, — one of the most various and copious of languages, — do not, according to Dr. Adam Smith, exceed three hundred: and Lord Monboddo even goes so far as to maintain that its whole vocabulary is derived from five duads, or combinations of two letters.

A language is considered perfect in respect of etymological structure when its primitives are very few in comparison of its derivatives, and when it has not only all the latter but also all the former within itself, and of its own growth.

Derivation seems to be an artifice of language to keep the number of words within proper bounds.

When the enlargement of his knowledge requires the use of a new word, it is natural for man, instead of inventing at once a sound altogether arbitrary, to graft a derivative, significant of the thing he

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wishes to express, on some well-known stock: and the principle on which he proceeds in selecting the stock and forming the derivative, is, to express things which are connected together by words which have also a connexion with one another.

The effect of this modification of old words in preventing the multiplication of new ones is well illustrated by the derivatives which are employed to express number. We give names to particular numbers to the extent of ten, and then we turn back and reckon ten and one, ten and two, ten and three, &c. giving names to the new numbers compounded of the names of the old. Thus,* thirteeen (threeten), fourteen (four-ten), fifteen (five-ten), &c. In this way we go on till we come to twice ten, which is expressed by a word (twenty) analagous to the names of two and ten. In like manner we count three tens (thirty), four tens (forty), &c., till we come to ten tens. which is expressed by a new word (hundred). Then the reckoning proceeds till it come to ten hundred, which is expressed by another new word (thousand): and so on, till we come to ten hundred thousand, which requires the invention of another new word (million). Thus, by the help of derivation and composition, we are enabled to express by a few new words all possible numbers, - which, without such help, would alone have required a language to express them.

ORIGIN OF WORDS.

I. ORIGIN OF ENGLISH ROOTS.

The English language derives its roots from various languages.

The basis of the language is the Saxon, which was spoken in England during the time of the Anglo-Saxons. But the original stock, besides being greatly modified by use, has received large and constant additions from other languages. The Danish and Norman invasions successively introduced a few Danish and Norman-French words. Subsequently, a great number of Latin and Greek words obtained currency, as also some French, Italian, and Spanish words. And, more recently, many scientific terms, especially the names of natural productions, have been adopted from the German; as well as many names of new commodities of commerce borrowed from the countries whence they have been imported. The great majority of our words, however, are still either of Saxon or of Latin origin.

^{*} Eleven and twelve are not cited as examples, because the word ten does not enter into their composition. They probably owe their origin to combinations of the words leave-ane (leave one) and two-leave,—meaning, that in counting a collection of eleven or twelve individuals, when the radiz ten is counted off, we leave one in the one case, and leave two in the other.—See Lardner's Cyclopædia, Arithmetic, p. 11.

The roots of the English language may be divided into Separable and Inseparable.

Separable roots are such as have been adopted into the language in the form of entire words; as, lucre, from the Latin lucrum.

Inseparable roots are such as have been admitted only as the radical parts of derivative or compound words; as, omni in omnipotent, from the Latin omnis.

Such roots as have been naturalized in the form of entire or separate words have been adopted into the language without almost any change except a slight alteration or transposition of their final letters.

But such as have been naturalized for the purpose of appearing only in composition as inseparable roots, have also lost their distinctive character as particular parts of speech.

SEPARABLE ROOTS.

The roots of the principal parts of speech are more easily traceable to their origin, and have undergone more regular changes in passing into the language, than those of indeclinable words.

The Saxon words, which form the basis of the language, have undergone various changes in their grammatical structure as well as in their final letters.

All the Saxon cases except the possessive — where ('s) has taken the place of es — have disappeared; the Saxon plural termination en has been supplanted by s, except in a few words; as, oxen, hosen, &c.; the termination of the Saxon infinitive an has been dispensed with; as, forgive for forgivan; and the variations of the verb in the several persons have also been materially changed.

The Latin words which have been adopted have, for the most part, suffered a change of termination.

Thus, the termination alis is changed into al; as, from orientalis, oriental.

Atus is changed into ate; as, from status, state.

Bilis is changed into ble; as, from laudabilis, laudable.

Crum is changed into cre; as, from lucrum, lucre.

Ctus and ctum are changed into ct; as, from actus, act; from effectus, effect; from edictum, edict.

Culus and culum are changed into cle; as, from circulus, circle; from curriculum, curricle.

Enus is changed into ene; as, from terrenus, terrene.

Erus is changed into ere; as, from sincerus, sincere.

Gnus and gnum are changed into gn; as, from benignus, benign; from signum, sign.

Idus is changed into id; as, from candidus, candid.

Ilis is changed into ile; as, from docilis, docile.

Inus is changed into ine; as, from divinus, divine.

Io is changed into ion; as, from religio, religion.

Ivus is changed into ive; as, from activus, active.

Ns is changed into nt: as, from innocens, innocent.

Ntia is changed into nce: as, from scientia, science.

O, when preceded by a single consonant, is changed into e; as, from scribo, scribe; from confido, confide; from reviso, revise; from altitudo, altitude.

O, when preceded by a double consonant, is, together with the last consonant, omitted: as, from committo, commit; from compello, compel.

Osus is changed into ose or ous; as, from jocosus, jocose; from calamitosus, calamitous.

Sus is changed into se; as, from sensus, sense.

Ssus is changed into ss; as, from recessus, recess; from remissus, remiss.

Tas is changed into ty; as, from charitas; charity.

Ugium is changed into uge; as, from refugium, refuge.

Unus is changed into une; as, from jejunus, jejune.

Urus is changed into ure; as, from securus, secure.

Usus is changed into use; as, from usus, use.

Utus and utum are changed into ute; as, from arbutus, arbute; from statutum, statute.

Xus is changed into x; as, from prolixus, prolix.

The Latin words which have suffered more than a change of termination in passing into English are chiefly such as have been received through the medium of the French; as,

LATIN.	FRENCH.	ENGLISH.
Ala, a wing	Aile	Aisle
Auctor	Auteur	Author
Bonitas, goodness	Bonté	Bounty
Bos, an ox	Bœuf	Beef
Brevis, short	Brief	Brief
Califacere, to warm	Echauffer	Chafe
Canalis, a pipe	Chenal	Channel
Canna, a reed	Canne	Cane
Caput, the head	Chef*	Chief
Carmen, a song or incantation	Charme	Charm
Catena	Chaîne	Chain

^{*}There can be no doubt that chef is from caput; because it can be traced in old writers through the successive stages of its progress,—chept, chep, chef.

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LATIN	FRENCH.	ENGLISH.
Coluber, a snake*	Couleuvrine	Culverin
Computare, to reckon	Compter	Count
Cooperire	Couvrir	Cover
Cultellus	Coutelas	Cutlass
Diabolus	Diable	Devil
Dignari, to think worthy	Deigner	Deign
Ebur	Ivoire	lvory
Extraneus, outward	Etranger	Stranger
Feretrum	Bière	Bier
Ferox /	Féroce	Fierce
Fidelitas, fidelity	S Feodalité	{ Fealty
	Feaulté	Giant
Gigas	Géant	
Gubernare	Gouverner	Govern
Gula, the throat	Goulet	Gullet
Incantare	Enchanter	Enchant
Inimicitia	Inimitié	Enmity
Lectarium, a bed	Litière	Litter
Levare, to lift	Lever	Lift†
Lex	Loi	Law
Macer, lean	Maigre	Meagre
Magister	Maistre, Maîtr	e Master
Magnus, great	Magne	Main Mainter
Medietas, the middle	Moitié	Moiety
Mirabile	Merveille	Marvel
Nomen, a name	Nom	Noun
Numerus, a number	Nombre	Number
Nutrix	Nourrice	Nurse
Oleum	Huile	Oil
Paganus	Paysan	Peasant
Panarium, a basket	Panier	Pannier
Passus, a step	Pas	Pace
Pauper	Pauvre	Poor
Peregrinus	Pélerin	Pilgrim
Populus, the people	Peuple	People
Præpositus, placed over	Prévost, now P	
Presbyter	S Prebstre or Pr	
Duchana da manua	tre, now Pre	Prove
Probare, to prove	Prouver	
Pullus, a chicken	Poulet	Poult, Poultry
Puppis, the stern of a ship	Poupe	Poop
Ratio, reason	Raison	Reason
Recipere, to receive	Recevoir	Receive
Regnare, to rule Rotundus	Regner Rond	Reign Round
~	Saveur	Round
Sapor, taste	Souverain	Savour
Supernus, supreme	Tuile	Sovereign Tile
Tegula, a tile Traditor	Traître	Traitor
Visus, a sight	Vue	View
rious, a organ	, no	V 10 44

^{*} Many warlike instruments take their names from animals; as, basilisk, falconet, ramrod, &c.

 $[\]dagger$ Lift is from the perfect participle of an obsolete verb leve, as drift from drive. It is still used as a participle in two instances in the Bible.

The *Greek* words which have been naturalized have also undergone, in general, a change of termination.

Thus, the termination ia is changed into y; as, from prosodia, prosody; from apologia, apology.

Ikos is changed into ic or ical; as, from mechanikos, mechanic or mechanical.

Ismos is changed into ism; as, from aphorismos, aphorism.

Ogos is changed into ogue; as, from epilogos, epilogue.

The number, however, of Latin and Greek words which have been adopted into English as separate words is comparatively small.

INSEPARABLE ROOTS.

The greater number of the Latin and Greek roots of the English language is found only in composition.

The changes which roots that are found only in composition undergo, cannot easily be reduced to general rules; but the following lists will sufficiently illustrate their nature:

LATIN ROOTS FOUND ONLY IN COMPOSITION.

Root and Meaning.	Representative.	Example.
Acris, sharp	acri	acrimony
Aedes, a house	edi	edify, edifice
Aequus, equal	equ, equi	equanimity, equilibrium
Aër, aëris, air	aeri	aerial, aeriform
Aevum, an age	ev	coeval
Ager, agri, a field	agri	agriculture
Agger, a heap	agger	exaggerate
Ago, I do, actus, done	ag, act	agent, actor
Ala, a wing	ali	aliped
Altus, high	alt	exalt, altitude
Amicus, a friend	amic, imic	amicable, inimical
Amo, I love	?	
Amor, love	Sam, amor	amiable, amorous
Animus, mind	anim	animate, unanimous, ani-
		madvert
Annus, a year	ann, annu, enni	annals, annual, biennial
Aqua, water	aqua, aque	aquatic, aqueduct
Arceo, I drive away (erce	o erc	coercion
when compounded)		
Aro, a plough	ar -	arable -
Ars, artis, art	art, ert	artful, inert
Artus, the joints	arti	articulate
Asper, rough	asper	asperity, exasperate
Audio, I hear, audītus	s, audi, audit	audience, audit, auditory
heard		•
Augeo, I increase, auctus	s, aug, auct, auth	augment, auction, author
increased		
Avis, a bird	avi	aviary
Beātus, blessed	beati	beatitude

DERIVATION.

Root and Meaning.	Representative.	Example.
Bellum, war	belli, bel	belligerent, rebel
Bellus, beautiful	bell	em <i>bell</i> ish
Bene, well	bene	benediction _
Bibo, I drink	bib	imbibe, wine-bibber
Bini, two by two	bin	combination
Bis, twice	bi	biped
Brevis, short	brev	brevity, abbreviate
Cado, I fall, casus, fallen		cadaverous, casual, accident
(changed into cido when	caa, caca, ca	casar or oac, cabaar, accessors
compounded)		
Cædo, I cut, cæsus, cut	cid cie	homicide, incision, precise
(changed into cido and		monnetae, metalon, precise
cisus when compounded	calor	caloric
Calor, heat		
Cando, I set on fire, cen-	cana, cens, cena	incandescence, incense, in-
sus, inflamed		cendiary
Canis, a dog	can	canine
Cano, canto, I sing	cant, cent	canticles, precentor
Capillus, hair	capill	capillary
Caput, capitis, the head	capit, cipit	capital, precipitate
Capio, I take, captus, ta-	cap, capt, cip, cipi,	capable, capture, anticipate,
ken (cipio and ceptus	cept	recipient, reception
when compounded)		
Carcer, a prison	carcer-	incarcerate
Caro, carnis, flesh	carn	incarnate, carnivorous
Carus, dear	car	caress
Cavus, hollow	cav	excavate, concave
Cedo, I give place, I go,	ced, ceed, cess	recede, succeed, concession,
cessus, giving place to		access
Celer, swift	celer	accelerate, celerity
Centum, a hundred	cent	century, centennial
Cerno, I see, I sift, cretus,	cern, cret, creet	discern, secretion, discreet
sifted	7	- 4
Cete, whales	cet	cetaceous
Cinctus, girt about	cinct	succinct, precincts
	cit	cite, citation
	clam, claim	exclamation, proclaim
Clarus, clear	clar, clari	declare, clarify
Claudo, I shut, clausus,	clane clud clue	clause, exclude, seclusion
shut (changed into cludo		etable, exclude, beetables
and clusus when com		
pounded)		
Clino, I bend	clin	roaling
Clivus, a slope	cliv	recline
		declivity
Colo I cultivate cultus	cel	celestial
Colo, 1 cultivate, cultus,	coi, cuit	colony, culture
Comes comities a com		
Comes, comitis, a com-	comit	concomitant
panion Cania plants		
Copia, plenty	copi	copious
Coquo, I boil, coctus,	cook, coct	cook, decoction
boiled		
Cor, cordis, the heart	cord	concord, cordial
Cornu, a horn	corn, cornu	unicorn, cornucopia
Corpus, corporis, the body	corpus, corpor,	corpuscle, incorporate, cor-
-	corpu	pulent

APPENDIX.

Root and Meaning.	Representative.	Example.
Cras, to-morrow	cras	procrastinate
Credo, I trust	cred	credit, credulous, credible
Cremo, I burn	crem	incremation
Crux, orucis, a cross	cruci	crucify
Cubo, I lie (cumbo when	cub, cumb	incubation, incumbent
compounded)	,	,
Culpa, a fault, culpo, I frad	culp	culpable, culprit
Cura, care	001700 00170	augator ginoguao
Curro, I run	cura, cur	curator, sinecure
Cursus, a running	cur, curr, cour,	incur, curricle, succour, ex- cursion, intercourse
Datus, given (ditus when	dit	addition
compounded)	uu	auamon
Decor, decoris, grace,	decor	decorous, decoration
beauty grace,	<i>accor</i>	accorous, accoration
Dens, dentis, a tooth	dent	dentist, dentifrice
Deus, dei, a god	Dei	Deity, deify
Dexter, right-handed, cle-		dexterity, dexterous
ver		.,
Dico, I say, dictus, said	dict	predict, dictate
Dies, day	di	dial, diary, meridian
Dignus, worthy	digni	dignity, dignitary
Diurnus, daily	diurn, journ	diurnal, journal
Doceo, I teach, doctus,	doc, doct	docile, doctor, doctrine
taught		
Doleo, I grieve	dol	condole
Dolor, grief	dolor	dolorous
Dominus, a master	domin	domineer, dominican
Domus, a house	dom	domestic, domicile
Donum, a gift		donation
Duco, I lead, ductus, led	duc, duct	induce, aqueduct
Duo, two	du	dual, duel
Durus, hard	dur	durable
Ebrius, drunken	ebr i	ebriety, inebriate
Edo, I eat	ed	<i>ed</i> ible
Ego, I	ego	egotist
Emo, I buy, emptus,	eem, empt	redeem, exemption
bought	. 11	, , , , , ,
	exter	external
Faber, a workman	fabr	fabric, fabricate
Facilis, easy, Facio, I make, fio, I am	jacu, jacut, jicut	facilitate, faculty, difficulty
made feature mode (feet	jaci, ject, jit, jic,	factor perfect honoft an
made, factus, made (ficio	fy	factor, perfect, benefit, so-
and fectus when com- pounded)		porific, purify
973 11 T 1 ·	fall	infallible, fallacious
Fanum, a temple	fan, fane	profanation, profane
Fari, to speak, fatus, hav-	fa. fat	ineffable, fate
ing spoken	J 4. J 40	
	felic	felicity
Femina, a woman		feminine, effeminacy
Fero, I carry or bring	fer	ferry, infer, circumference
Ferveo, I boil	ferv	fervid, effervescence
		fidelity
	fid	confide, diffidence
	,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	terjuct, arjustici

Root and Meaning.	Representative.	Example.	
Filia, a daughter	fili	filial, affiliate	
Filius, a son			
Filum, a thread Fingo, I feign, fictus,	fil for fict	filament figment, fiction, fictitious	
feigned feight, netus,	J.8, J.C.	Jog mone, Jeenon, Jeennous	
Finis, an end	fin	final, finite, definite, definitive	
Fiscus, the imperial treasury	fisc	fiscal, confiscate	
Fissus, cleft	fiss	fissure	
Flatus, a puff of wind Flecto, I bend, flexus, bent	flat, flatu	inflation, flatulent	
Flecto, I bend, flexus, bent	flect, flex	reflect, flexible	
Fligo, I dash, flictus, dashed	Juct	conflict	
	flor	florist, floral	
Flos, floris, a flower Fluctus, a wave	fluctu	fluctuate	
Fluo, I flow, fluxus, a	flu, flux	fluent, reflux	
flowing			
Foedus, foederis, a treaty,	Jeder	confederate	
Foro, I bore or pierce	for	perforate fortuitous	
Fors, fortis, chance Fortis, strong	fort	fortify, fortitude	
Fortis, strong Fossa, a ditch Fossus, dug Franco I break fractus	foss	fosse	
Fossus, dug	foss	fossil.	
Frango, I break, fractus	frag, fract, fring	fragment, fracture, infringe	
broken (fringo when			
compounded			
Frater, a brother	frater, fratri	fraternal, fratricide	
Frigeo, I am cold	frig	frigid, refrigeration	
Fructus, fruit Fruor, I enjoy	fructi fru	fructify fruition	
Fugio, Ifly, fugitum, to fly	fua fuait	refuge, fugitive	
Fulgeo, I shine	fulg	refulgent	
Fulmen, fulminis, light-	fulmin	fulminate	
ning			
Fundo, I pour out, fusus poured out		refund, fusible, infuse	
Gelu, frost	gel, geal, gelat	congelation, congeal, gelat-	
G		inous	
	gent	gentile	
Genu, a knee Gero, I carry, gestus, car-	genu ger gest	genuflexion	
ried		ion ion	
Genitus, begotten	gen, genit	progeny, progenitor	
Genus, generis, kind Glacies, ice	gener, genera glaci	degenerate, generation glacial, glacier	
Glomus, gloměris, a clew	glomer	agglomeration	
Gradior, I go, gradus, a	grad, gred, gradu,	retrograde, ingredient, gra-	
step, gressus, having gone	gress	duate, aggression	
Gramen, graminis, grass	gramini	graminivorous	
Cuaria hanre		gravity	
Gravis, fleavy Grex, gregis, a flock Herroe L stick begge	greg	gregarious, egregious	
Hæreo, I stick, hæsus, stuck	her, hes	adhere, cohesion	
Hæres, hærēdis, an heir	hered, herit	hereditary, inherit	

Root and Meaning.

Halo, I breathe halHaurio, I draw, haustus, haust drawn Homo, a man homi, hum Hortor, I exhort hortHospes, hospitis, a guest hospit Hostis, an enemy host Humus, the ground Idem, the same Ignis, fire Infra, below humidenigninfern Insŭla, an island insula, insul Intra, intus, within inter, inti Iter, itinĕris, a journey itiner Iterum, again iterItum, to go itJaceo, I lie jac Jactus, thrown (jectus ject when compounded) Janua, a gate jan Jugum, a voke Junctus, joined jug junct Juro, I swear jurjuris, juri Jus, juris, right, law Jutus, assisted jut juven Juvěnis, a youth Lacer, torn lacerLædo, I hurt, læsus, hurt lid, lis (lido and lisus when compounded) Lapis, lapidis, a stone lapid Latus, carried lat Latus, wide Latus, lateris, a side lat, lati laterLegātus, an ambassador legat Lego, I bequeath leg Lego, I gather, I choose, leg, lect lectus, gathered Lego, I read, lectus, read leg, lect Lenis, gentle lenLentus, gentle lent Levis, light lev, liev, lief Levo, I lighten, I lift up lev Lex, legis, a law legis, leg Liber, a book libr, libel Liber, free liberLibra, a balance Licet, it is lawful libr

licit

liter

lignum, lign

lig, liga

lingu, lict

lique, liqui liti

Lignum, wood Ligo, I bind

Liqueo, I melt

Lis, litis, strife

Litera, a letter

Linguo, I leave, relictus

Example. exhale, exhalation exhaust

homicide, human exhort hospitable hostile inhumation, posthumous identity ignition, igneous infernal peninsula, insulate internal, intimate itinerate, itinerary iteration exit, circuit, transit, sedition ad iacent inject, conjecture

janitor conjugate adjunct, conjunction conjure jurisdiction, juridical adjutant, coadjutor juvenile lacerate collide, collision

lapidary, dilapidate elation, translate dilate, latitude lateral, equilateral delegate, legation legacy, legatee allege, collect

legible, lecture lenity, lenient relent levity, relieve, relief elevate, lever legislator, legal library, libel liberty, liberal, libertine libration, equilibrium lignumvitæ, ligneous oblige, ligament relinquish, relict

liquefaction, liquid litigious literal, literature

DERIVATION.

	рышчигот	
Root and Meaning.	Representative.	Example.
Locus, a place	loc, loco	locality, locomotion
Longus, long	long, longi	oblong, longitude
Loqui, to speak	loqui, loquy, loqu.	colloquial, obloquy, loqua-
Loqui, to speak	locu	. city, ventriloquist, elocu-
	,	tion
Ludo, I play, lusus, de-	ludi, lus	ludicrous, illusion
ceived	,	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
Lumen, luminis, light	lumin	luminary
Luna, the moon	lun	lunatic, sublunary
Lux, lucis, light	luc	lucid
Macies, leanness	maci	emaciate .
Macŭla, a spot	macul	im <i>macul</i> ate
Magnus, great	magni	magnify
Male, wickedly	male, mal	malevolent, malversation
Mando, I bid	mand	command, mandate
Mando, I chew	mand	mandible
Maneo, I stay	man, main	permanent, remain
Mano, I flow	man	emanate
Manus, a hand	manu, mani	manual, manipulation
Mare, the sea	mar	marine, maritime
Mars, martis, the god o	f <i>mart</i>	martial
war		
Mater, matris, a mother	mater, matri	maternal, matricide
Mel, mellis, honey	mell	mellifluous
Melior, better	melior	a <i>melior</i> ate
Memor, mindful	memor	memorable
Mens, mentis, the mind	ment	mental
Mergo, I plunge, mersus	, merg, mers	emerge, immersion
plunged		
Metior, I measure, men-	met, mensu	mete, commensurate
sus, measured		
Mille, a thousand	mill	millennium
Miror, I gaze	mir	mirror, admire
Miser, wretched	miser	miserable
Mitis, mild	miti	mitigate
Mitto, I send, missus, sen		remit, missionary
Modus, a measure	mod	mode, modify
Mola, a millstone, flour	mol	emolument
Moles, a mass	mol	molest, demolish
Mollis, soft	molli	emollient, mollity
Moneo, I warn, monitus	, mon, monit	admonish, monitor
Warned		·····
Mors, mortis, death	mort	mortify, immortal
Mos, moris, a manner	mor.	moral
Multus, many	multi	multiform, multitude
Munitus, fortified	munit	munition
Munus, muneris, a gift	muner	remunerate
Murus, a wall	mur	immure
Muto, I change	mut	mutable, commute
Natus, born	nat	native, natal
Navis, a ship	nav	naval, navigate
Necto, I tie, nexus, tied Nego, I deny	nect, nex	connect, annex
Nihil, nothing	neg	negative
Nomen, nominis, a name	nihil	annihilate nominal, denominate
Non, not	nomin	
21011, 1100	10010	nonentity

Root and Meaning.	Representative.	Example.
Norma, a rule	norm	e <i>norm</i> ous
Novus, new	nov	innovate, novice
Nox, noctis, night	nox, noct	equinox, nocturnal
Nubo, I marry, nuptus,		connubial, nuptials
married		The state of the s
Nudus, naked	nud	denude
Nugæ, trifles	nug	nugatory
Numerus, a number	numer	numeration
Nuncio, I tell	nunci, nounc	annunciation, renounce
Nutrio, I nourish	nutri	nutriment
Octo, eight	oct	octagon, octave
Oculus, the eye	ocul	oculist
Oleo, I smell	ol	olfactory, redolent
Omnis, all	omni	omnipotent
Onus, onĕris, a burden	oner	onerous, exonerate
Opto, I wish	opt	adopt, option
Opus, opěris, a work	oper .	operose, operation
	orbi	orbicular
Orbis, a circle Orno, I deck	orn	adorn, ornament
Oro, I beg	ora	inexorable, orator
Os, oris, the mouth	or	oral, adoration, orifice
Os, ossis, a bone	088	ossify
Otium, ease	oti	otiose, negotiate
Ovum, an egg	ov	oval, oviform
Pactus, having bargained	pact	compact
Pando, I spread, passus or	pand, pass, pans	expand, compass, expanse
pansus, spread		
Par, equal	par	parity
Pareo, Lappear	par	ap <i>par</i> ent
Pario, I produce	par	parent, viviparous
Paro, I prepare	par, pair	reparation, repair
Pastus, fed	past	pastor, repast
Pater, patris, a father	pater, patri, parri	paternal, patrimony, parri-
T . T . M		cide
Patior, I suffer, passus,	pati, pass	patient, passive, passion
having suffered		11
Pauci, few	pauci	paucity
Pax, pacis, peace	paci	pacific
Pecco, I sin	pecc	impeccable
Pectus, pectoris, the breast		expectorate
	pecul	peculation
Pecunia, money	pecuni /	pecuniary
Pello, I drive away, pulsus,	pel, puls	expel, repulsion
driven		
Pendo, I hang, I weigh,	pend, pens	depend, pendulum, stipend,
pensus, hung, weighed		pensive, compensate
Pene, almost	pen	peninsula
Pes, pedis, the foot	ped	biped, pedestal
Peto, I seek, petitus,	pet, petit	centripetal, competition
sought		
Pingo, I paint, pictus,	paint, pict	painter, depict
painted		
Piscis, a fish, piscor, I fish	maaaa	piscatory
Places I places		
Placeo, I please	plac	placid
Placo, I appease Plebs, the common people	plac plac	

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Root and Meaning.	Representative.	Example.
	plen	replenish, plenitude
Pleo, I fill, pletus, filled	ply, plet	supply, complete, expletive
Plico, I fold	plic plic	complicate
Ploro, I wail	plor	deplore
Plumbum, lead	plumb, plum	plumber, plummet
Pono, I place, positus,	non nos nosit	depone, impose, position
placed place, positus,	pow, pos, poste	depone, impose, position
Populus, the people	popul	popular
Porto, I carry	port	export, portable
Poto, I drink	pot	potion
Praeda, plunder	preda	predatory, depredation
	prav	depravity
Pravus, wicked Precor, I pray	prec	deprecate
Prehendo, I take, prehen-		apprehend, comprehension
sus, taken	prenena, prenena	uppronona, comprenential
Pretium, a price	preci	appreciate
Probo, I prove	prob	probable
Probus, good	prob	probity
Pudens, pudentis, bashful	mident	impudent
Puer, a boy	puer	puerile
	pugn	pugnacious, impugn
Puto, I lop, I think	put	amputate, reputation, dis-
r uto, r top, r timing	pur	pute
Putris, rotten	putr	putrefaction
		inquire, inquest, requisi-
sought	sit, quer	tion, query
Quassus, shaken (cussus		discuss, percussion
when compounded)	CWCC	discuss, percussion
Quatuor, four	quadr	quadrangle
Queror, I complain	quer	querulous
Quinque, five	quinqu	quinquennial
Radix, radicis, a root	radic	radical, eradicate
Ramus, a branch	ram	ramification
Rasus, scraped	ras	rasor, erase
Ratio, rationis, reason	ration	rational
Rectus, straight	recti	rectilineal
Rego, I rule, rectus, ruled		regal, rector
Rete, a net	reti	reticulate, retina
Rideo, I laugh at, risus,	rid. ris	deride, risible
laughed at	,,	
Rigo, I water	rig	irrigate ,
Rodo, I gnaw, rosus,		corrode, corrosion
gnawed	, ,	
Rota, a wheel	rota	rotation
Rumen, ruminis, the throat	t rumin	ruminate
Ruptus, broken	rupt	bankrupt, eruption
Rus, ruris, the country	rus, rur	rustic, rural
Sacer, sacri, sacred	sacri, secr	sacrifice, consecrate
Sal, salt	sal	saline
		salient, assault, resile, in-
(silio and sultus when		sult
compounded) ·		
Salvus, safe	salv	salvation
Sanctus, holy	sanct	sanctify
Satis, enough	satis, sati	satisfy, satiate
Satur, full	satur	saturate
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APPENDIX.

Root and Meaning.	Representative.	Example.
Saxum, a rock	saxi	saxifrage
Scando, I climb (scendo	scend	ascend
when compounded)		
Scindo, I cleave, scissus,	scind, sciss	rescind, rescissory
cleft		
Scio, I know	sci	science, prescience
Scribo, I write, scriptus,	scrib, script	inscribe, scripture
written		
Scrutor, I search diligently		scrutiny, inscrutable
	scurr	scurrility
Seco, I cut, sectus, cut	sect	dissect, sectarian
Sedeo, 1 sit, sessus, sat	sed, sid, sess	sedentary, assiduous, pre side, session
Semen, seminis, seed	semin	disseminate, seminary
Semi, half	semi	semicircle
Senex, senis, old	seni	senility
Sentio, I feel, sensus, felt		sentient, sensation, dissent
Sequor, I follow, secutus,		obsequies, subsequent, per
having followed	1,	secute
Sidus, sideris, a star	sider	sidereal
Silva, a wood	silv	silvan
Similis, like	simil	similar, similitude
Simul, at the same time	simul	simultaneous
Simulo, I feign	simul	dissimulation
Socius, a companion	soci	social, society
Sol, the sun	sol	solar, solstice
Solor, I comfort	sol .	console
Solus, alone	sol, soli	sole, solitude, soliloquy
Solvo, I loose, solūtus,	solv, solu, solut	dissolve, soluble, solution
loosed		······································
Somnus, sleep	somni	somniterous
Sopor, soporis, sleep	sopor	soportic
Sorbeo, I suck in, sorptus, sucked in	soro, sorpi	absorbent, absorption
Sors, sortis, a lot	sort	assort, consort
Sparsus, spread (spersus		disperse, aspersion
when compounded)	opero -	disperse, aspersion
Species, a form	speci	specific
Specio, I see, spectus,		specious, aspect
seen	T T	7 1
Specula, a watch-tower	specul	speculate
Spero, I hope	sper, spair	desperate, despair
Spiro, I breathe	spir	respiration, expire (ecspire
	•	conspiracy
Spondeo, I promise, spon-	spond, spons	respond, response, sponsor
sus, promised		11
Stillo, I drop		distil
Stinguo, I put out, stinc-	stingu, stinct	extinguish, extinct
tus, extinguished		1: 7-4-
	stipul	stipulate
Stirps, the trunk of a tree,	stirp	extirpate (ec-stirpate)
offspring	stat stant sti-	statura distant galatica
Sto, I stand, stans, stand-	stat, stant, stic	stature, distant, solstice
ing, statum, to stand	atmin a atmiat	actrimment restrict
Stringo, I bind, strictus, bound	string, strict	astringent, restrict
Duna		

DERIVATION.

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Root and Meaning.	Representative.	Example.
	struct, strue, stroy	structure, construe, destroy
piled up		0
	stulti	stultify
Suadeo, I advise, suasus,	suad, suas	dissuade, persuasive
advised		
	suav	suavity
Sumo, I take, sumptus,	sum, sumpt	assume, consumption
taken	n	
Surgo, I rise, surrectus,	surg, surrect	insurgent, resurrection
risen		
Tango, I touch, tactus,	tang, tig, tact	tangent, contiguous, con-
touched		tact
Tardus, slow	tard	tardy, retard
Tego, I cover, tectus,	teg, tect	integument, protect
covered		
Tempus, temporis, time	tempor	temporal, contemporary
Tendo, I stretch, tentus,	tend, tent, tens	distend, tent, extent, intense
stretched		
	ten, tain, tin, tent	tenant, contain, continent,
held		detention
Tenuis, thin	tenu	tenuity, attenuate
	tep, tepe	tepid, tepefaction
	terr, ter	terraqueous, inter
	test	testify, attest
Textus, woven Tollo, I lift up	text	texture, context
Tollo, I lift up	tol	extol
	tort	tortuous, extort
Traho, I draw, tractus,	trah, tract	subtrahend, tractable, ex-
drawn	131	tract
Tritus, rubbed	trit	trituration
Trudo, I thrust, trusus,	trua	intrude, obtrusion
thrust		subtance in subtance
Tueor, I see, I protect, I	tuit	tuition, intuitive
look Turba a arawd	4	tunkulant diatunk
Turba, a crowd	turb _	turbulent, disturb
Turpis, base	turp	turpitude
Uber, fertile	uber	exuberant
Umbra, a shadow	umbra, umbr und	umbrageous, umbrella undulate, inundate
Unda, a wave Unguo, I anoint, unctus,		
anointed	ungu, unci	unguent, unction
Unus, one	un, uni	unanimous, uniform
Urbs, a city	urbs, urb	suburbs, urban
Ustus, burnt	ust	combustion ·
Utilis, useful	util	utility
Uxor, a wife	uxor	uxorious
Vacca, a cow	vacc	vaccination
	vac	vacation, vacancy
vaco, ram empry <	vacu	evacuate, vacuum
Vado, I go	vad, vas, wade	invade, invasion, wade
Vagor, I wander	vag, vagr	vagabond, vagrant
Valeo, I am strong	val, vail	prevalent, prevail
Vasto, I lay waste	vast, waste	devastation, waste
Veho, I carry	vehi, vey	vehicle, convey
Venio, I come, ventus,	ven. vent	convene, advent
come	,	

Root and Meaning.	Representative.	Example,
Ver, the spring	ver	vernal
Verto, I turn, versus, turned	vert, vers	revert, divers, versatile
Verus, true	ver	verity, aver
Vestis, a garment	vest _	vestment, invest
Vetus, veteris, old	veter	veteran
	vi	obviate, obvious
	vid, vis	provide, visible
Vigil, watchful	vigil	vigilant
Vinco, I conquer, victus,	vinc, vic	invincible, victory
conquered	- 01	
Vita, life	vit	vital
Vivo, I live, victum, to live	viv, vict	vivid, survive, victuals
Voco, I call, vocātus, called	voc, vok, vocat	irrevocable, revoke, vocat-
Volo, I will, I wish	vol	voluntary, benevolent
Volo, I fly	vol	volatile volatile
Volvo, I roll, volutus, rolled	volv, volut	revolve, revolution
Voro, I devour	vor	voracious, carnivorous
Vulgus, the rabble	vulg	vulgar, divulge
Vulsus, pulled	vuls	convulsion

LATIN ROOTS FOUND ONLY IN COMPOSITION, WHICH HAVE PASSED INTO ENGLISH THROUGH THE MEDIUM OF THE FRENCH.

Root and Meaning.	French.	Example.
Campus, a field	Champ	Champaign
Carus, dear	$Ch\`ere$	Cherish
Diurnus, daily	Jour, a day	Adjourn
Lex, law	Loi	Loyal
Liberare, to free	Livrer	${ m De} liver$
Opus, operis, a work	Euvre	Manæuvre
Rex, regis, a king	Roi	Royal, viceroy
Velo, I cover	Veloper	Envelop

GREEK ROOTS FOUND ONLY IN COMPOSITION.

Root and Meaning.	Representative.	Example.
Adelphos, a brother	adelph	phil <i>adelph</i> ia
Aethlos, a combat	athlet	athletic
Agōgos, a leader	agogu	demagogue
Akouo, I hear	acous	acoustics
Anthos, a flower	antho	anthology
Anthropos, a man	anth rop	philanthropy
Arché, beginning, sove	- arch	heptarchy, archbishop
reignty		
Aristos, best	aristo	aristocrat
Arithmos, number	arithm	arithmetic
Astron, a star	astro	astronomy astronomy
Atmos, vapour	atmo	atmosphere
Autos, self	auto	autograph
Bapto, I dip	bapt	baptism

Root and Meaning. Representative. Baros, weight biblio Biblion, a book Bios, life bio Cheir, the hand Cholé, bile chir cholé chrono Chronos, time chryso Chrysos, gold decaDeka, ten Demos, the people dem, demo Dendron, a tree dendr, dendron Doxo, I will think, dedog- dox, dogma mai, I have been judged, doxé, an opinion dromDromos, a course Drus, an oak dru, dry Dynamis, power dynamEidos, a form eido Epos, a word epEremos, a desert erem Ergon, work Ethos, a custom erg, urg $et \breve{h}$ Eu, well eu, ev Gamos, a marriage gamGaster, the belly gastr Gé, the earth geo Geno, I produce gen Genos, kind or race gen Glossa, glotta, the tongue gloss, glot Gonia, a corner, an angle gon Gramma, a letter, writing gram Grapho, I write, graphé, a graph writing Gyros, a circle Hagios, holy hagio Hecaton, a hundred hecaHelios, the sun helion Hemera, a day hemer Hepta, seven hepta Heteros, dissimilar hetero Hex, six hexa Hiĕros, holy hier Hippos, a horse hippo od Hodos, a way Homos, similar homo Hydor, water hydro Hygros, wet hygro Icthys, a fish ichthy

Ity jos, we have the head key have been cosm kratos, strength kyklos, a circle cycl

presentative.

barometer
bibliography
biography
chirography
choleric
no chronometer
so chrysolite
decalogue
epidemic, democracy
dendretic, rhododendron
dogma chronometer

hippodrome, dromedary druid, dryad dynamics kaleidoscope epic, orthoepy eremite (hermit) energetic, metallurgy ethical eulogy, evangelist bigamy

gastric, gastronomy geography oxygen, hydrogen heterogeneous glossary, polyglot polygon

epigram, grammar autograph, hydrography

gyration

hagiography hecatomb aphelion ephemeral heptagon heterodox hexagon hierarchy hippopotamus exodus homologous hydrostatics hygrometer ichthyology isoperimetrical cacophony kaleidoscope apocalyptic, apocalypse

hydrocephalus, cephalic microcosm, cosmetic aristocracy, aristocratic epicycle

16 *

Root and Meaning. Representative.

Laos, the people lai Lithos, a stone litho, lit Logos, a word, description logo, logy, logu

Machè, a fight mach Metron, a measure metr. meter Micros, little micro Misos, hatred. misMonos, alone mono Morphè, shape morph Mythos, a fable mutho Naus, a ship naut Nekros, dead necroNeos, new nen Nesos, an island nesus Nomos, a law nomNosos, sickness Oikeo, I dwell noso oeci, ochi olig Oligos, little, few Ophis, a serpent ophiOptomai, I see opti Ornis, ornithos, a bird ornitho Orthos, right orthoOxys, acid oxyPais, paidos, a boy pedPathos, feeling Penté, five path pent Petra, a stone petra, petri Phagein, to eat phag Philos, a friend philo, phil Phobeo, I terrify phob Phone, the voice phon Phren, the mind phren Phthongos, a sound phthong Polemos, war polem pol Poleo, I sell Polis, a city polis

body Sitos, corn, food sitSkopeo, I see scop Sophos, wise Stello, I send sophstle, stal Strepho, I turn strephTelè, distant telè Technè, art Thapto, I bury Theos, God techn taphthe, thus Tithēmi, I put, I suppose, thesis, thet

Sarks, sarkos, flesh, the sarco

poly

pyro

potamus

pseudo

thesis, a position

Polys, many

Potamos, a river Pseudo, I deceive

Pyr, pyros, fire

Topos, a place topo Zoon, an animal zoo, zo

Example.

laity
lithography, chrysolite
logomachy, chronology, ca-

talogue nau*mach*v

geometry, thermometer

microscope misanthrope monosyllable metamorphosis mythology nautical necromancy neology Peloponnesus astronomy nosology antoeci, perioeci, parochial oligarchy ophiology optical ornithology orthography oxygen pedagogue apathy, antipathy pentagon petralogy, petrifaction anthropophagi philosophy, philanthropy

hydrophobia euphony phrenology, phrensy diphthong

polemical bibliopole metropolis polygon hippopotamus pseudo-apostle pyrometer sarcophagus

parasite
telescope
sophist, philosophy
apostle, peristaltic
peristrephic
telescope
technical
epitaph
atheist, enthusiast
hypothesis, hypothetical

topography zoology, azote

The Prepositions and Conjunctions are the most difficult words in the English language to trace to their origin, as well as the most irregular in the changes which they have undergone.

Formerly it was the practice of grammarians to describe these parts of speech rather as the pegs and nails that fasten the several parts of the language together, than as parts of the language itself.* But since the researches of Horne Tooke and Dr. John Hunter have thrown light on their history, it is universally held that they are abbreviations, corruptions, or combinations of other words, especially of verbs and nouns.

The leading prepositions are of Saxon origin. Thus,

After is from aft, the hind or back part of a thing; now disused except by seamen.

About is from abuta, the verge or extremity of a thing.

Above is from ufa, high.

Amid or amidst is compounded of a, on or in, and mid, the middle.

Among is from gemong, mixed, the perfect participle of mangan, to mix.

Before is compounded of the imperative be and the adjective fore.

Behind is compounded of the imperative be and the adjective hind.

Below is compounded of the imperative be and the adjective low.

Beneath is compounded of the imperative be and the adjective neath, low (from whence nether and nethermost).

Beside or besides is compounded of the imperative be and the noun side.

Between is compounded of the imperative be and the numeral adjective twain.

Beyond is compounded of the imperative be and goned, the perfect participle of gan, to go.

By† is the imperative of beon, to be.

For is from faran, passing to wards, consequence or object; as, "They contend for victory;" that is, the consequence or object being victory.

From is from frum, beginning or source; as, "Figs come from Turkey;" that is, the source or beginning being Turkey.

Near and nigh are the adjectives neahr, nih, contiguous.

 $[\]boldsymbol{\ast}$ This is the language even of Monboddo, the most philosophical of our old grammarians.

[†] Our ancestors wrote either be or by; as, "Damville be right ought to have the leading of the army." The force of this preposition is to express one thing as the cause or means of another; as, "Damville by right," that is, right being, "ought to have the leading of the army."—Tooks.

Of* (generally pronounced ov) is from have, to possess; as, "The city of David:" that is, possessed by David.

Over is from ufer, the comparative of ufa, high; as, "He stood over me;" that is, higher than I. Up, upper, uppermost, have the same origin.

Save is the imperative of the verb save.

Through is from thuruh, a door or gate; as, "The eagle flies through the air;" that is, the air being the passage.

Thorough is of the same origin; also door.

Till is compounded of the preposition to and while, time.

To is the same originally with do, and signifies act or completion of an act. It is opposed to from, the beginning; as, "Figs come from Turkey to England;" that is, Turkey being the beginning, England the finishing or end.

Toward is compounded of to and ward, the imperative of wardian, to look at; as, "I move towards the city;" that is, with my view directed to the city. Ward, to guard, is of the same origin.

With is the imperative of withan, to join; as, "A house with a party wall;" that is, "A house, join a party wall."

Without is from withutan, the imperative of wyrthanutan, to be out. Withouten occurs as a preposition in old English writers, and is still used in Scottish poetry.

The leading Conjunctions are also of Saxon origin. Thus,

And is an abbreviation of anad, the imperative of ananad, to add; as, "Two and two make four;" that is, "Two add two make four."

As is the same with es, equal.

But is from bot, the imperative of botan, to superadd; as, "I came expecting to find you, but I was disappointed;" that is, "Add, I was disappointed." "To boot" is of the same origin. The preposition but is an abbreviation of be out, or by out, and signifies unless or except; as, "I saw nobody but John;" that is, "unless" or "except" John.

Either is the same with the adjective either, one of two; as, "It is either day or night;" that is, "One of the two, day or night."

Eke is the imperative of eke, to add; as, "John Gilpin was a citizen; a train-band captain eke was he;" that is, "Add, a train-band captain was he."

Else is the imperative of alesan, to dismiss; as, "Give me the book, or else I will go;" that is, "Omit to give me the book, and I will go."

^{*} Of is so vague in its signification, that it may be used for many of the other prepositions. Thus, we can say, a descendant of or from; a friend of or to; hatred of or for; an associate of or with; beloved of or by, &c. But possession is probably its original signification, in common with that of the termination of the possessive case, to which it is equivalent.

If is from the imperative gif or gifan, to give or grant; as, "If I go;" that is, "Gif or give; suppose, grant, that I go."

Lest is contracted for lesed, the participle of lesan, to dismiss; as, "Take care lest you fall;" that is, "Take care; this being dismissed, you fall."

Or is a contraction for the numeral adjective other; as, "Give me either the black or the white;" that is, "Give me one of the two—the black, other the white."

Since is the participle of seon, to see, and is equivalent to seeing; as, "Since it is so;" that is, "Seeing it is so."

Still is from stell, the imperative of stellan, to suppose; as, "Though I desired him to depart, still he is not gone;" that is, "Suppose or remark, he is not gone."

That is from theat, the perfect participle of thean, to assume or suppose; as, "I believe that your statement is correct;" that is, "I believe the thing assumed, viz. your statement, is correct." That is conveniently considered as alike an adjective pronoun, a relative pronoun, and a conjunction; but it is in all cases originally and really a participle or adjective.

Then is from the present participle of thean, to assume or suppose; as, "So then, they that are in the flesh cannot please God;" that is, "So, assuming what has been just advanced, they that are in the flesh cannot please God."

Though is from the imperative of thohte,* to think or suppose; as, "Though he was learned, he was modest;" that is, "Suppose he was learned."

Unless is from onles, the imperative of onlesan, to dismiss; as, "Unless ye repent, ye shall all likewise perish;" that is, "Dismiss the supposition—ye repent, ye shall all likewise perish."

Yet is from the imperative of getan, to get; as, "Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him;" that is, "Suppose he slay me, get or obtain this, I will trust in him."

II. ORIGIN OF ENGLISH DERIVATIVES.

English Derivatives are formed chiefly by attaching to the Root, or essential part of a word, certain *Prefixes* and *Affixes*.

A *Prefix* is a particle placed before a root to vary its sense; as, *super*structure, *re*build.

^{*} This account of though is from Dr. Jamieson, who says that the form in which it cours in our most ancient MSS. is thocht and althocht. Tooke derives it from the imperative of thajian, to allow.

An Affix or termination is a particle added to the root to vary its signification; as, plentiful, darkish.

A derivative formed by means of a prefix is always of the same part of speech with its root, provided that root exist as a separate word in the language; as, turn, return; navigation, circumnavigation.

A derivative formed by means of an affix has the part of speech to which it belongs determined by the affix rather than by the root; as, life, lifeless; brother, brotherly.

Prefixes are chiefly prepositions, and are of as great diversity of origin as the roots which they modify.

The following are the prefixes of purely English or Saxon origin, with their import: —

A signifies on or in; as, a-foot, that is, on foot; a-bed, that is, in bed. Be signifies about; as, besprinkle, that is, sprinkle about; also for or before; as, bespeak, that is, speak for or before.

En signifies in or on; as, encircle, that is, circle in; also, make; as, enfeeble, that is, make feeble. (En is changed into em in roots beginning with b or p; as, embark, empower.)

Fore signifies before; as, foresee, that is, see beforehand.

Mis denotes error or defect; as, misdeed, that is, a wrong or evil deed.
Out denotes excess or superiority; as, outrun, that is, surpass in running.

Over denotes eminence or excess; as, overcharge, that is, to charge too much.

Un, before an adjective or adverb, signifies not; as, unworthy, that is, not worthy; un,* before a verb, signifies the undoing of the act expressed by the verb; as, unfetter, that is, to take off fetters.

Up denotes motion upwards; as, upstart; — also subversion; as, upset.

With signifies from or against; as, withdraw, that is, draw from; withstand, that is, stand against.

The following are the prefixes of Latin origin, with their import: -

A, ab, abs, signify from or away; as, avert, that is, turn from; absolve, that is, loose from; abstain, that is, hold from.

Ad signifies to; as, adhere, that is, stick to. (Ad assumes the various forms of a, ac, af, ag, al, an, ap, ar, as, at, according to the commencing letter of the root with which it is joined; as, ascend, accede, affix, aggrandize, allot, annex, appeal, arrest, assume, attract.)

Am signifies round about; as, ambient.

Ante signifies before; as, antecedent, that is, going before.

^{*} Un is sometimes prefixed to a verb without altering the sense; as, loose, un-loose.

Circum signifies round or about; as, circumnavigate, that is, sail round. Cis signifies on this side; as, cisalpine, that is, on this side the Alps.

Con signifies together; as, convoke, that is, call together. (Con takes also the various forms of co, cog, col, com, cor; as, co-operate, cognate, collect, commotion, correlative.)

Contra signifies against; as, contradict, that is, speak against. (Contra sometimes takes the form counter; as, counterbalance.)

De signifies down; as, deject, that is, cast down.

Dis signifies asunder; as, distract, that is, draw asunder; also negation or undoing; as, disarm, that is, take arms from. (Dis has also the forms of di and dif; as, diverge, diffuse.)

E, ex, signify out of; as, egress, that is, going out; exclude, that is, shut out. (E, ex, take also the form of ec, ef; as, eccentric, efflux.)

Extra signifies beyond; as, extraordinary, that is, beyond ordinary.

In, before an adjective, signifies not; as, inactive, that is, not active; in, before a verb, signifies in or into; as, inject, that is, throw in or into. (In has also the various forms of ig, il, im, ir; as, ignoble, illuminate, import, irradiate.)

Inter signifies between; as, intervene, that is, come between.

Intro signifies to within; as, introduce, that is, lead within.

Juxta signifies nigh to; as, juxtaposition, that is, position nigh to (a thing).

Ob signifies in the way of or opposition; as, obstacle, that is, something standing in the way. (Ob also has the various forms of oc, of, o, op; as, occur, offend, omit, oppose.)

Per signifies through or thoroughly; as, perforate, that is, bore through; perfect, that is, thoroughly done.

Post signifies after; as, postdiluvian, that is, after the flood.

Pre, or præ, signifies before; as, predict, that is, tell before.
Preter, or præter, signifies past or beyond; as, preternatural, that is, beyond the course of nature.

Pro signifies for, forth, or forward; as, pronoun, that is, for a noun; provoke, that is, call forth; proceed, that is, go forward.

Re signifies back or again; as, retract, that is, draw back; rebuild, that is, build again.

Retro signifies backwards; as, retrospect, that is, a looking backwards. Se signifies aside or apart; as, secede, that is, go aside or apart.

Sine signifies without; as, sinecure, that is, without care or labour. (Sine also has the form of sim and sin; as, simple (without a fold); sincere (without mixture).

Sub signifies under or after; as, sub-beadle, that is, under-beadle. (Sub has also the forms of suc, suf, sug, sup, sus (contracted for subs); as, succeed, suffuse, suggest, suppress, suspend.)

Subter signifies under or beneath; as, subterfuge, that is, a flying under, a shift.

Super signifies above or over; as, superfluous, that is, flowing over or above. (Super has also the French form, sur; as, surmount.)

Trans signifies over from one place to another; as, transport, that is, carry over.

Ultra signifies beyond; as, ultra mundane, that is, beyond the world.

The following are the prefixes of Greek origin, with their import: - ,

A or an signifies without or privation; as, apathy, that is, want of feeling; anonymous, that is, without a name.

Amphi signifies both or the two; as, amphibious, that is, having both lives, or capable of living both in land and water.

Ana signifies through or up; as, anatomy, that is, a cutting through or up.

Anti signifies against; as, anti-Christ, that is, opposed to Christ.

(Anti has sometimes the contracted form of ant; as, antarctic, opposite to the arctic or north.)

Apo signifies from or away; as, apostasy, that is, a standing or departure from. (Apo has sometimes the contracted form of ap; as, aphelion, away from the sun.)

Cata signifies down; as, catarrh, that is, a flowing down, a slight cold.

Dia signifies through; as, diaphanous, that is, appearing through, transparent.

Epi signifies upon; as, epitaph, that is, upon a tombstone.

Hyper signifies over and above; as, hypercritical, that is, over or too critical.

Hypo signifies under; as, hypothesis, that is, a placing under a supposition.

Meta denotes change; as, metamorphosis, that is, a change of shape.

Para signifies near to or side by side as if for the purpose of comparison, and hence sometimes similarity, and sometimes contrariety; as, parody, a poem imitated from another; paradox, an opinion contrary to the general opinion.

Peri signifies round about; as, periphrasis, that is, a round about mode of speaking, a circumlocution.

Syn signifies together; as, synthesis, that is, a placing together. (Syn has also the forms sy, syl, sym; as, system, syllogism, sympathy.)

The Affixes have probably, in common with the Prefixes, considerable diversity of origin; but their origin, as well as their import, it is more difficult to ascertain.

The following are those which most frequently occur: -

```
An
                                        Ac.
Ant
                                        AL
Ar
                                       An
Ard
                                        Ar
Ary
                                        Ary
                                                    denoting of or pertaining to.
                                        En
Eer
      denoting the agent or doer
Ent
         of a thing.
                                        Ic or ical
                                        Ile
Er
Ist
                                        Ine
                                        Ory
Ive
0r
                                        Ate
Ster
                                        Ful
     denoting the person acted upon
Ate
                                        Ose
F.e.
        and equivalent to the pas-
                                               denoting full of or abundance.
                                        Ous
Ite
        sive termination ed.
                                        Some
Acri
Age
Ance or Ancu
                                        Ish
Ence or Ency
                                        Like \
                                               denoting likeness.
Hood
                                        Ly
Inn
Ism
                                               denoting capacity in an active
                                        Ive
                 denoting being or state of being
Ment
                   state of being taken abstractly.
Monu
                                        Able ) denoting capacity in a passive
Ness
                                        Ible \
                                                 sense.
Ry
Ship
                                        Less denoting privation.
Th
                                        Ish denoting a smaller degree of.
Tude
Ty or ity
                                        Ate
Ure
Y
                                        En.
                                        Fy
Ish
Dom !
                                               denoting to make.
       denoting jurisdiction.
Ric
                                        Ise
Cle
                                        Ize
Kin
Let
       diminutive terminations.
                                        Ly denoting like in quality.
Ling
                                        Ward denoting in the direction of.
Ock
```

The parts of speech which are formed from radical words by means of affixes are, the Noun, the Adjective, the Verb, and the Adverb.

Nouns denoting the agent, or doer of a thing, are formed from nouns and verbs denoting the act, by adding the affixes an, ant, ar, ard, ary, eer, ent, er, ist, ive, or, ster; as,

From Guard guardian From Bake haker Assist assistant Murder murderer Beg beggar Conform conformist Dote dotard Operate operative Adverse adversary Inspect inspector Chariot charioteer Pun punster Adhere adherent

Nouns denoting the person acted upon are formed from nouns and verbs denoting the act or object, by adding the affixes ate, ee, ite; as,

From Potent potentate From Bedlam bedlamite favourite

Nouns ending in the affixes er or or, and ee, are used in opposition—the former denoting the agent, the latter the person acted upon; as, assigner, assignee; indorser, indorsee.

Nouns denoting being, or state of being, are formed from nouns, verbs, and adjectives, by adding acy, age, ance, ancy, ence, ency, hood, ion, ism, ment, mony, ness, ry, ship, th, tude, ty or ity, ure, and y; as,

From	Pirate	piracy	From Contrite	contrition
	Conspire	conspiracy	Despot	despotism
	Intricate	intricacy	Parallel	parallelism
	Bond	bondage	Achieve	achievement
	Dote	dotage	Merry	merriment
	Repent	repentance	Acrid	acrimony
	Fragrant	fragrance	Acute	acuteness
	Expectant	expectancy	Rival	rivalry
	Flagrant	flagrancy	Friend	friendship
	Adherent	adherence	Deep	depth
	Condole	condolence	Grow	growth
	Abstinent	abstinence	Apt	aptitude
	Agent	agency	Loyal	lovalty
	Emerge	emergency	Absurd	absurdity
	Decent	decency	Durable	durability
	Boy	boyhood	Disclose	disclosure
	Likely	likelihood	Master	mastery
	Exhaust	exhaustion	Jealous	jealousy

Nouns denoting jurisdiction are formed from nouns or adjectives, by adding dom or ric; as,

From King kingdom | From Bishop bishopric

Diminutive Nouns are formed from the names of persons or things, by adding cle, kin, let, ling, ock; as,

From Corpus corpuscle From Duck duckling Lamb lambkin Hill hillock Stream streamlet

Adjectives denoting of or pertaining to a thing are formed from the name of the thing described, by adding ac, al, an, ar, ary, en, ic or ical, ile, ine, ory; as,

From Elegy elegiac From Angel angelic Autumn Canon canonical autumnal Republic republican Infant infantile adamantine Consul consular Adamant Moment momentary Expiate expiatory Wood wooden

Adjectives denoting abundance are formed from the names of the property, by adding ate, ful, ose, ous, some, y; as,

From Affection affectionate Hope hopeful Globe globose Pith pithy

Adjectives denoting likeness are formed from nouns, by adding ish, like, ly; as,

From Child childish From Maiden maidenly Saint saintlike

Adjectives denoting capacity in an active sense are formed from verbs, by adding ive; as,

From Accumulate accumulative

Adjectives denoting capacity in a passive sense are formed from nouns or verbs, by adding able, ible; as,

From Detest detestable | From Contempt contemptible

Adjectives denoting privation are formed from the name of the thing wanting, by adding less; as,

From Art artless | From Cause causeless

Diminutive Adjectives are formed from other adjectives, by adding ish; as,

From Dark darkish | From Brown brownish

VERBS involving the idea of to make as a part of their signification are formed from nouns and adjectives, by adding ate, en, fy, ish, ise or ize: as.

From Alien Perpetual Length Black	alienate perpetuate lengthen blacken	From Public Pure Epitome Equal	publish purify epitomise equalize
Type	typify		

Verbs ending in en are generally of Saxon origin, en or an being, in that language, the sign of the infinitive.

Verbs ending in ate are generally of Latin origin; but the distinguishing characteristic of verbs of Latin origin is, that they always form their past tense and perfect participle in d or ed, and are not in this respect subject to the same irregularities with those which are derived from the Saxon.

Adverse denoting quality are formed from adjectives, by adding ly; as,

From Abrupt abruptly | From Kind kindly

Adverbs denoting in the direction of are formed from nouns, adjectives, and other adverbs, by adding ward; as,

From Home homeward From On onward
West westward

The English language has, in many instances, two sets of Derivative words expressive of the same thing, the one of Saxon, and the other of Latin origin. Thus,

SAXON.	LATIN.	SAXON.	LATIN.
Fearful	Timid	Height	Altitude
Swiftness	Velocity	Lifeless	Exanimate
Womanish	Effeminate	Yearly	Annual
Building	Edifice	Watery	Aqueous
Fewness	Paucity	Hearer	Auditor

The best specimens of pure unmixed Saxon are probably to be found in "The Bible"* and in "The Pilgrim's Progress." Dr. Johnson's writings afford the best specimens of Latinized English. The Latinized style is the more sounding, the Saxon the more forcible.

English nouns are often of Saxon origin, while the corresponding adjectives are derived from the Latin.

The number of our inseparable roots being so great, it necessarily happens that a considerable proportion of our derivatives come *directly*

^{*} Of the fifty-eight words of which the Lord's Prayer is composed, there are only three which are not immediately derivable from the Saxon.

from other languages, without having any corresponding primining in English. But in no class of words is this so apparent as in adjectives formed directly from Latin nouns.*

The following are those which most frequently occur: -

Nouns from Saxon. Adjectives from Latin. From Beginning Initial initium Boundary Conterminous conterminus Breast Pectoral pectus Carcass cadaver Cadaverous Cat Feline felis Rural Country 221.5 Rustic Cow Vaccine nasca gradus Degree Gradual Disease Morbid morbus Dog Canine canis Ear Auricular auris End Final finis hostis Hostile Enemy Eve Ocular oculus Field Agrarian Digital agerdigitus Finger Flock grex Gregarious Flour Farinaceous farina Tutelar Guardianship tutelaTutelary \ Hand Manual manus Head Capital caput Hire Mercenary merces Horse Equestrian equus House Domestic domus Island Insular insula Kitchen Culinary culina Light Lucid lux Light Luminous lumen Lion Leonine Leo pulmo Lungs Pulmonary Mind Mental mens Pecuniary pecunia Money Moon Lunar luna Mouth Oral ns. Nose Nasal nasus Place Local locus Rabble Vulgar vulgus Ring Annular annulus Rival. Emulous emulus Root Radical radix. Rule Regular regula

^{* &}quot;In English, instead of adjectiving our own nouns, we have borrowed, in immense numbers, adjectived signs from other languages, without borrowing the unadjectived signs of these same ideas; because our authors found they had occasion for the former but not for the latter. And, not understanding the nature of language, or the nature of the very benefit they were receiving, they did not improve their own language by the same contrivance within itself, but borrowed from other languages abbreviations ready made to their hands. Thus, instead of turning such nouns as finger, mind, life, skin, &c., into adjectives, they adopted adjectives formed from the corresponding nouns in other languages; a digital, mental, vital, cutaneous, &c. This practice is the more to be lamented, as it has rendered the English language very difficult to be acquired. For, as the matter now stands, when a poor foreigner has learned all the names of things in the English tongue, he must go to other languages for the adjectived names of the same things. And even an unlearned native can never understand the meaning of one quarter of that which is called his native tongue." — Horke Tookes.

Nouns from Saxon.	Adjectives from Latin.	From
Sea	Marine Maritime	mare
Shepherd	Pastoral	pastor
Shoulder	Humeral	humerus
Side	Lateral	latus
Sight	Visual	visus
Soldier	Military	miles
Spring	Vernat	ver
Sun	Solar	- sol
Theft	Furtive	furtum
Thigh	Femoral	femur
Tooth	Dental	aens
Treaty	Federal	fædus
Whale	Cetaceous	cets

Some nouns of Saxon origin have two sets of adjectives, one derived immediately from the nouns, the other from the Latin. Thus:—

Nouns from Saxon.	Adjectives from Sexon.	Adjectives from Lat	in. From
Body	Bodily	Corporal	corpus
Boy	Bovish	Puerile	puer
Brother	Brotherly	Fraternal	frater
Burden	Burdensome	Onerous	onus
Day	Daily	Diurnai	dies
Death	Deadly	Mortal	mors
Earth	Earthly	Terrestrial	terra
Father	Fatherly	Paternal	pater
Fault	Faulty	Culpable	culpa
Fire	Fiery	Igneous	ignis
Flesh	Fleshy	Carnal	caro
Glass	Glassy	Vitreous	vitrum
Grief	Grievous	Dolorous	dolor
Hair	Hairy	Capillary	capillus
Hatred	Hateful	Odious	odium
VII 141-	** . 1.1.6	(Salubrious)	
Health	Healthy	Salutary	salus
Heart	Hearty	Cordial	cor
Heaven	Heavenly	Celestial	cælum
Help	Helpful	Auxiliary	auxilium
Ice	Icv	Glacial	glacies
King	Kingly	Regal	rex
Law	Lawful	Legal	lex
Life	Lively	Vital	vita
Love	Lovely	Amorous	amor
Man	Manly	Human	homo
Mother	Motherly	Maternal	mater
Night	Nightly	Nocturnal	nox
Pitch	Pitchy	Bituminous	bitumen
Point	Pointed	Punctual	punctum
Priest "	Priestly	Sacerdotal	sacerdos
Reason	Reasonable	Bational	ratio
Star	Starry	Stellar	stella
Strength	Strong	Robust	robur
War	Warlike	Martial	mars
Water	Watery	Aqueous	aqua
Will	Willing	Voluntary	voluntas
Woman	Womanly	Effeminate	femina
Wood	Woody	Sylvan	sylva
World	Worldly	Mundane	mundus
Year	Yearly	Ananal	aneus
17 *			Services.

Some derivatives, from contraction, change of cognate letters, and similar causes, have undergone such alterations, that their origin is scarcely discernible.

Thus, curfew, the evening-bell (literally, cover-fire), is an abbreviation of cover and feu (fire), because it was the signal for extinguishing fires.

Quiver, that which holds or covers arrows, is another form of cover.

Proxy, one who is deputed to supply the place of another, is a contraction of procuracy (compounded of pro, for, and cura, care).

The two points which determine the affinity of words in respect of origin, are identity of letters and identity of signification, or letters of the same organ, and a signification obviously deducible from the same sense.

II. PRIMARY SIGNIFICATION OF WORDS.*

Language being intended for the communication of thought, the words of which it consists must each have a certain signification.

There does not seem to be any necessary connexion between words and the thoughts they express. They appear to have become significant merely by usage; and it is now impossible to say in what manner the conventional connexion between the sign and the thing signified was at first established.

Originally all words seem to have been applied in one sense only.

Words, after being introduced into a language, are often employed in different and successive meanings.

The same bias which leads man to enrich language rather by the modification of words already in use than by the creation of new

^{*} The pupil should be cautioned against the error of supposing that the present meaning of words is to be acquired by learning the history of their pedigree. It is from established usage, not etymology, that the precise meaning of words must be gathered. Etymology is a deceitful guide in questions about the propriety or impropriety of expressions. The instances are few indeed, as is well* remarked by Dugald Stewart, in which etymology furnishes effectual aids to guide us in fixing the exact signification of ambiguous terms, or in drawing the line between expressions which seem to be nearly equivalent. In such cases, nothing can be safely trusted to but that habit of accurate induction, which, by the study of the most approved models, elicits gradually and insensibly the precise notions which our best authors have annexed to their phraseology. Etymological researches are, however, of great use. Independently of their being calculated to gratify a natural and liberal curiosity, they furnish important data for illustrating the migrations of mankind, and the progress of laws, of arts, and of commerce; they throw light on peculiar constructions, and they enable a man to obtain a familiarity with the general meaning, as well as to acquire a mastery over the use of his language which no other study can impart.

ones, leads him also to prefer using an old word in a new sense to the inventing of an additional term.

The words charity, conversation, offence, prevent, are instances of words applied in the successive acceptations at different periods of time.

Charity is used in Scripture as synonymous with love; it is now very much restricted to liberality to the poor.

Conversation is used in Scripture to signify citizenship, or freemanship; it now commonly means familiar discourse or intercourse.

Offence, in Scripture, signifies a stumbling-block or occasion of stumbling; it now signifies a cause of displeasure.

To prevent, in Scripture and in the English liturgy, means to go before or anticipate; it now generally means to obstruct or hinder.

The signification of words is either *Primary* or *Secondary*.

The *Primary* or *radical* sense of a word is that in which it is first used in language.

The Secondary or figurative sense is that which is afterwards superinduced on the primary.

A word can have only one primary, but it may have various secondary meanings.

Some words are used in their primary sense only.

Some words are used both in their primary and secondary senses.

Thus, to transport, signifies to carry across from one place to another, which is its primary meaning; and also to carry into banishment as a felon, and to carry away with pleasure, which are secondary meanings.

Some words have lost their original and retain only their secondary significations.

Thus, period, which primarily signifies a path round about, a circuit, is restricted to express a definite portion of time, or the end of a certain duration, or the point which marks the end of a complete sentence.

The words which admit of the greatest latitude and variety of meaning are those which enter largely into composition as the radical parts of derivative or compound words.

Thus, the radical parts of the following words, all which represent pater, a father, have a difference of meaning in each.

Paternal, belonging to a father.

Patrimony, an inheritance acquired from a father.

Patriarch, one who governs by paternal right.

Patrician, a nobleman (of the rank of patres, or senators).

Patriot, one who loves his native or father land.

Patronymic, a family-name.

Patron, one who takes another under his care.

Parricide, one who kills his father.

Pater-noster, the Lord's Prayer (so called, because it begins "Pater noster," that is, "Our Father.")

The radical meaning of a word, when discovered, always furnishes the key which explains and reconciles the remotest of its secondary significations.

Thus, to let, which signifies both to allow and to hinder,* has its opposite meanings explained by a reference to its root let, which signifies a sluice or vent for water, which, of course, either allows or obstructs the flowing of the water, according as it is opened or shut.

In like manner, heat and hate, though apparently unconnected in present signification, are found to be reconcileable when discovered to be both derivatives of the same Saxon root haetan, to stir or agitate, hate and heat alike involving the idea of violent excitement.

So also reck, reckon, and right, though greatly varied in their application, are all from a root signifying stretching or straining. Reck, that is, care, is a stretching of the mind towards an object; reckon, both in its sense of think and in its sense of calculate, is also a stretching of the mind; and right is strait or stretched, whether used in its primary sense, as in the expression "A right line," or in its metaphorical sense, as in the expression, "The Lord will do that which is right."

Many of the prepositions may also be cited as illustrations; their diverse and often opposite applications admitting of explanation from their primary meaning. Thus, for denotes both in favour of (as, "The gift is for a friend"), and in opposition to (as, "It rains; for all that, he will ride,"—that is, "in opposition to all that," or, "notwithstanding the rain, he will ride.") But the primary sense (from faran, to pass towards) of passing or moving towards a place, reconciles both significations. The moving or going towards a place

^{*} As, "He let me go;" that is, "he allowed me to go." "I was let from coming unto you;" that is, "I was hindered," &c.

[†] These examples prove that words of the same generic meaning are often found in very different applications. But still more striking illustrations of this fact are furnished by the application of words of the same generic meaning in different languages. The same word, leap, is used both in English and in German; but in the former it signifies simply to spring; in the latter it signifies run. Anti in Greek and ante in Latin not only represent the same idea, viz. priority, but they are the same words. Yet the former signifies opposition, and never priority in point of time merely; while the latter is employed to denote only priority in point of time.

or thing may either be in friendship or in hostility. Which of the two it is, in any one case, must be determined by the context,—all that the preposition expresses being simply the going or moving towards.

Words pass from original to secondary applications according to fixed rules.

The changes of meaning which words undergo being ultimately dependent upon the laws that govern human thought in the use of arbitrary signs, the connexion between the original and every successive sense in which they are employed is necessarily fixed. But this connexion cannot be always reduced to fixed rules; nor is it even possible in all cases to trace the progress of their meanings, or to show by what steps they have passed from their primitive to their present application.

The following are the transitions that most frequently occur: -

1. Words which primarily denote the qualities of sensible objects are extended to describe the analogous mental and moral qualities. Thus,

Sour signifies primarily acid; secondarily, austere or peevish.

Acute (from acus, a needle) signifies primarily sharp, opposed to blunt; secondarily, ingenious, opposed to stupid.

Sanguine (from sanguis, blood) signifies primarily red, like blood; secondarily, ardent.

2. Words are often transferred from one object to another which has some resemblance, real or supposed, to the former. Thus,

The Latin granum, a grain of corn (from whence the English grain), is the parent of granite, a stone spotted as if with grains.

Lens, a kind of lentile or pulse, is the parent of lens, a lentile-shaped piece of glass or other transparent substance used in optical science.

Pyr, the Greek word for fire, is perhaps the parent of pyramid, a building resembling in shape a flame of fire.

3. Words of a generic signification are often restricted in their application to a specific object or idea. Thus,

Deist, which primarily denotes one who has or admits a God, is the name for one who believes in a God but rejects Christianity.

Prelate signifies literally a person preferred or elevated; but it is limited to express an ecclesiastical dignitary, a bishop.

Rector literally means a ruler in general; but it is commonly restricted to mean either, as in England, a clergyman of a certain rank, or, as in Scotland, the head-master of a principal school.

4. Words which are specific in their primary application, often pass into general terms.

Of this description are all proper names which are used as common nouns, and adjectives derived from them. Thus,

Jesuit, which primarily means a member of the Society of Jesus, is applied generally to describe a person of great subtlety and cunning.

Philippic, the name of the orations in which Demosthenes inveighed against Philip of Macedon, is used to denote invective in general.

But words of this kind are not the only instances in which the tendency to generalize the signification of terms is to be found.

Birch, the twigs of which are employed in some English schools as the instrument of punishment, has come to mean an instrument of correction in general.

Emolument, which primarily means the grist of a mill, or toll taken for grinding, has been generalized to signify profit or gain, whatever be the source of it.

5. In many words the change from one meaning to another consists merely in a slight deflection or difference of application.

The following instances will illustrate the nature of the deflections by which words successively slide from one original import to a variety of figurative and remote applications:—

From the Latin corpus, corporis, the body, are derived

Corpse, a dead body.

Corporeal, of or belonging to the body.

Corpulence, bulkiness of body.

Corps, a body of soldiers.

Corporal, a subordinate military officer, commanding a small body of soldiers.

Corporation, a body municipal.

From the Latin hospes, hospitis, a host or guest, are derived

Hospitable, kind to strangers.

Hospital, a refuge for the sick.

Hotel (formerly hostel), an inn.

Hostler, the keeper of the horses at an inn.

From the French jour, a day, are deduced Adjourn, to put off till another day.

Journal, a diary, and also a paper or book published periodically.

Journey, travel by land, originally the travel of a day.

Sojourn, to reside for a time, originally for a day.

Journeyman, a workman for a limited time, originally by the day.

From the French parler, to speak, are deduced

Parley, an oral treaty.

Parole, word of promise.

Parliament, the great British council.

Parlour, a room (for conversation).

From the Saxon pocca (in Scotch and Old English poke), a bag, are deduced

Pock (in the plural pox), pustule or vesicle (of the shape of a bag).

Pocket, a bag inserted into clothes.

Poach, to steal game (from the practice of putting it in a bag).

From the Latin pondus, ponderis, a weight, are deduced

Ponderous, heavy.

Ponder, to weigh mentally.

Pound, a specific weight; also a sum of money, 20s. value, so called from the money being originally weighed.

Pounder, a gun that carries a bullet of so many pounds, as a six-pounder.

Poise, to balance (a weight).

From the Latin pono, I put or place; positus, put or placed, are deduced

Position, situation.

Posture, attitude or place of the body.

Positive, certain (properly or certainly placed or set); also dogmatical (ready to place or lay down notions with confidence).

Post, a beam set erect; also any fixed place or station.

Post, mode of conveying letters or of travelling by means of horses placed at different stages.

Postage, payment for conveyance of letters.

Repository, a place where things are deposited or kept.

Supposititious, not genuine; put by trick in the place or character belonging to another.

Depose, to put down from an office; to degrade, or divest of.

Deponent, one who lays down or gives evidence in a court of justice.

Repose, rest; literally placed or laid back (for rest).

Expose, to lay open; generally applied to the exposure of evil.

Expound, to interpret.

Expositor, one who expounds or interprets.

Impose, to lay on, to cheat.

Imposition, laying on, cheating.

Impost, a tax (laid on).

Impostor, one who cheats by assuming a fictitious character.

From the Latin primus, first, are deduced

Prime, early, first-rate.

To Prime, to put the first powder in the pan of a gun.

Primer, a first book for children.

Premier, the first minister of state.

Primate, the first or highest ecclesiastic.

Primitive, ancient.

Prim (from primitive), formal, precise.

Primrose, an early flower in spring.

From the Latin senex, old, are deduced

Senior, elder in age or in office.

Signior, a title of respect (given originally to age).

Senate, a council (because composed originally among the Romans of old men).

Senator, a public councillor.

Sire, father; also a title of address to kings.

6. Many words owe their secondary sense to purely accidental and often very singular associations.

The following are instances: -

Atlas, a collection of maps, is derived from Atlas, an African king, who, from his fondness for astronomy, is said to have supported the heavens on his back, and whose portrait in this attitude is often prefixed to books of maps.

Cabal, a close intrigue, is said to owe its origin to the initial letters of the names of five celebrated cabinet ministers of Charles II.,— Clifford, Ashley, Buckingham, Arlington, and Lauderdale. Cabal, the science of the Rabbins, is a word of Hebrew origin.

Clergy, the order of men set apart for the service of God, is from cleros (Gr.), a lot or inheritance, probably because the Hebrew priests had a special lot or portion assigned them among the other tribes.

Clerk, one who records transactions in writing, and formerly the usual name for a scholar, is from clericus, a clergyman, because the clergy were at one time the only persons who were fit for situations requiring learning.

Dactyl, a foot in verse, consisting of one long and two short syllables, is from dactylos (Gr.), a finger,—a finger consisting of a long and two short joints.

Pagan, a heathen, is from pagus (Lat.), a village; because, after the establishment of Christianity in the Roman empire, the heathen being driven to villages and other parts remote from cities, were called pagani, that is, villagers.

Pontiff, priest (in Latin pontifex, that is, bridge-maker), is said to have been originally applied to the ministers of religion; because at Rome they had the charge of repairing a particular bridge, which had also been built by them.

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study school geographies deficient in this respect.

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FROST'S UNITED STATES.

HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES; for the use of Schools and Academies. By John Frost. Illustrated with 40 engravings.

The design of the author in this, his larger history, has been to furnish a text-book full and complete enough for the use of colleges, academies, and the higher seminaries. It begins with the discovery of the New World, and presenting the series of events in a clear and connected narrative, rejecting whatever was considered irrelevant or unimportant, and dwelling chiefly on those striking features of the subject which give it vividness and character; the history is brought down to the present day. "Although," says the author in his preface, "the considerable period embraced, the multitude of characters and events delineated, and the extent of the field in which they figure, have rendered the preservation of historical unity no easy task, he has laboured to give the work such a degree of compactness as would enable the student to perceive the relation of all its parts, and to grasp the whole without any very difficult exercise of comprehension."

The numerous testimonials to the merit of this work, and its popularity The design of the author in this, his larger history, has been to furnish a

difficult exercise of comprehension."

The numerous testimonials to the merit of this work, and its popularity evinced quite unequivocally by the sale of ten thousand copies within a few months after its first publication, afford a strong presumption that the author has succeeded in his purpose of making it a first-rate school history.

The following notices and recommendations of Frost's History, are selected

from an immense number which have been sent to the publisher.

RECOMMENDATIONS.

MR. BIDDLE,

Dear Sir,—I am glad to see that the "History of the United States," which
you announced some time since, has made its appearance. The extensive
research which has of late years been carried on upon the subject of American
history, and the careful investigation of original sources of intelligence, by
individuals eminently qualified for the task, have furnished valuable mate-

rials from which to enlarge and to correct the historical records of our country. It was time to have these advantages transferred to works designed for try. It was time to have these advantages transferred to works designed for the purpose of education. I was happy, therefore, to observe by your announcement, that a book on this plan was to be prepared. I have since been gratified with the perusal of the volume; and I take pleasure in saying that it appears to me in every respect well executed. It avoids the fault with which most compilations are chargeable—that of merely sketching a general outline of events, too brief and abstract to gain the attention of the student. It is free, at the same time, from injudicious prolixity and detail.

The style is clear, concise, and spirited; free on the one hand from the ambitious and rhetorical character, and on the other, from the negligence and inaccuracy into which most of our popular compends have fallen.

As a history of the United States, it is, in my opinion, more full and more exact than any of the same size, and in all other respects preferable, as a book intended to aid the business of instruction.

WILLIAM RUSSELL,

WILLIAM RUSSELL, Editor of the American Journal of Education, first series. Philadelphia, Oct. 1836.

New York, January 11, 1837.

We fully concur in the sentiments above expressed.

G J. HOPPER,
RUFUS LOCKWOOD,
ROYAL MANN,
JOHN OAKLEY,
HENRY SWORDS,
GEORGE INGRAM,
JOHN C. TREADWELL,
JOSEPH M'KEEN,
E. WORTH JOSEPH MYKEEN, F. S. WORTH, WILLIAM FORREST, F. A. STREETER, JAMES LAWSON, DAVID SCHOYER, SOLOMON JENNER, C. WM. NICHOLS, JOSEPH MOONEY,

above expressed.

JOSEPH CHAMBERLAIN,
MYRON BEARDSLEY,
WILLIAM H. WYCKOFF,
THEODORE W. PORTER,
C. C. JENNINGS.
ROBERT J. FURNEY,
AARON RAND,
EDMUND D. BARRY, D.D., Principal of a Classical Academy.
SAMUEL GARDNER,
D. STEVENS,
SAMUEL BROWN,
JOSEPH M. ELY,
P. PERRINE,
SAMUEL RICHARDS. SAMUEL RICHARDS.

From S. Jones, A.M., Philadelphia, corner of Seventh and Carpenter streets

A History of the United States for the use of schools, such as the present-has long been greatly needed—something to correspond in its general charac-ter with the admirable histories of Goldsmith, which have been received with so much favour. I have examined the volume prepared by Mr. Frost, and "although the considerable period embraced, the multitude of characters and events delineated, and the extent of the field in which they figure," have events delineated, and the extent of the field in which they figure," have called for the exercise of great judgment in the selection, as well as in the arrangement of his materials, yet this difficult task has been accomplished with a success which is highly creditable to the author. The great industry and fidelity with which it has been composed are very apparent; and the "List of Authorities," at the end, evinces that he has availed himself of the best sources of information. It gives me pleasure to commend this History of the United States, as being better suited to the valuable purpose for which it was designed, than any other which has hitherto come under my notice. February, 1837.

S. JONES.

Mr. E. C. Biddle, Your "Frost's United States" is, in my judgment, by far the best school book in the department of history that we have. It ought to supersede, in respect to more advanced pupils, any other text-book extant on this subject. I can only wish that it may be placed within the reach of those for whom it is intended, inasmuch as the work needs to be known merely, in order to be generally adopted.

CHARLES HENRY ALDEN.

Columbia Academy, Philad., Nov. 15, 1836.

MR. EDWARD C. BIDDLE,

Dear Sir,—I am so well pleased with "Frost's History of the United States," and its merits as a school book, that I have organized a class who are now engaged in studying it.

Respectfully yours, &c.
J. H. BROWN.

We fully concur in the opinions expressed above.

JOHN COLLINS,
MATTHIAS NUGENT,
RICHARD O'R. LOVETT,
S. H. REEVES,
JAMES CROWELL,
THOMAS COLLINS,
R. M'CUNNEY,
THOMAS H. WILSON,
DAVID SMITH,
BARTRAM KAIGHN,
M. SEMPLE,
B. W. BLACKWOOD,
WILLIAM M'NAIR,
E. W. HUBBARD,
WILLIAM LEWIS,
E. NEVILLE,
JOHN ALLEN,
WILLIAM MANN,
JAMES E. SLACK,
L. W. BURNETT,
CHARLES MEAD,
THOMAS M'ADAM,
WILLIAM ALEXANDER, A.M.
JOSEPH RAPP, No. 41 Sansom
street.
JOHN PURLZ,

AUGUSTINE LUDINGTON,
SAMUEL CLENDENIN,
ARCHIBALD MITCHEIL,
THOMAS T. AZPELL,
T. G. POTTS,
J. B. WALKER,
H. LONGSTRETH, A.M., Classical
Teacher, Friends' Academy.
D. R. ASHTON,
WILLIAM MARRIOTT, Principal
of Philadelphia Select Academy,
corner of Fith and Arch streets.
RIAL LAKE,
E. FOUSE, N. E. corner of Race and
Sixth streets.
WILLIAM A. GARRIGUES, Mathematical Teacher.
I. 1. HITCHCOCK,
THOMAS BALDWIN,
T. SEVERN,
JOHN SIMMONS,
JOHN STOCKDALE,
Rev. SAMIL. W. CRAWFORD, A.M.
Principal of the Academical Dept.
of the University of Pennsylvania.

I have examined "Frost's History of the United States," just published, and cheerfully recommend it to the attention of teachers as a very superior work of the kind. In style, a most important point in works of this character, it is decidedly superior to some of the most popular historical compends now used in our schools and academies.

Baltimore, March 16, 1837.

R. CONNOLLY.

Dear Sir,—I have long felt the want of a good History of the United States, and was pleased to have the opportunity of perusing Frost's. I am so much pleased with its elegance of language, neat arrangement, copious questions, and style of getting up, that I shall at once introduce it into my school, and use my influence to give it a wide circulation.

Baltimore, March 16, 1837.

E. B. HARNEY.

We fully concur in the above.

EDWARD S. EBBS,
MICHAEL POWER,
ANDREW DINSMORE,
JAMES WILKISON,
N. M. KNAPP,
DAVID KING,
JOHN R. GARBOE,
JOSEPH WALKER,
JAMES E. SEARLY,
THOMSON RANDOLPH,
CHARLES H. ROBERTSON,

CHARLES F. BANSEMOS, ROBERT O'NEILL, JOHN HARVIE, E. YEATES REESE, PHILIP WALSH, JOHN KIRBY, A.M. BENJAMIN G. FRY, S. M. ROSZEL, JOSEPH H. CLARKE, JOHN KEELY, PARDON DAVIS.

Baltimore, March, 1837.

Mr. E. C. Biddle, Sir,—I have examined with some attention "A History of the United States, by John Frost," published by you. I am so much pleased with its happy arrangement, correct style, and careful investigation into the incidents of our history, that I shall introduce it into my school, as early as practicable, and I think its merits need only be known, to recommend it to every school in the country.

I am, respectfully, &c. A. A. DOWSON.

By the politeness of the publisher, Mr. E. C. Biddle, of Philadelphia, we have received, through his agent, a copy of Frost's "History of the United States;" and having examined it, are infinitely pleased with the work. The compiler has departed sufficiently from the path of common historians, to render his work truly entertaining, without overlooking any important historical fact. The chronological and statistical tables are full, the subject matter well arranged, and it seems adapted in every important respect for use in schools and academies.

(Figure 18 Septiment March 20, 1827)

Gay Street Seminary, March 20, 1837.

Baltimore Female Classical School.

MR. BIDDLE.

Sir,-As far as I have examined "The History of the United States," which you put into my hands for that purpose, it receives my decided approbation; and in corroboration of this, I shall introduce it immediately, as a text-book, into my school.

A. B. CLEAVELAND, A.M., M.D., Schoolmaster. Baltimore, March 16, 1837.

From Stephen S. Roszel, A.M., Principal of "Spring Seminary," Baltimore.

Mr. E. C. Biddle, Sir,—A superficial examination of "Frost's United States" is quite suffi-Sir,—A supernoial examination of "Prost's United States" is quite sun-cient to convince any impartial and enlightened mind of its general excel-lence, and especially of its admirable adaptation to the purposes of scholas-tic study. The simplicity of its arrangement, the perspicuity of its delinea-tions, and the elegance of its style, combine to recommend its adoption all our literary institutions, and to secure in its favour the cheerful plaudits Respectfully, S. S. ROSZEL. of universal approbation.

Philadelphia, March 24, 1833.

This is to certify, that "Frost's History of the United States" has been adopted as a class-book by the Controllers of the Public Schools of the First School District of Pennsylvania, and is in general use in the public schools in the city and county of Philadelphia.

Secretary of the Board of Controllers.

FROST'S HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES has been reprinted in London as the first of a series of NATIONAL HISTORIES written by natives of the respective countries to which they relate. This is a compliment not often paid to American school books by British publishers.

FROST'S HISTORY FOR COMMON SCHOOLS.

HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES FOR THE USE OF COMMON SCHOOLS. By JOHN FROST, author of "History of the United States for the use of Schools and Academies." "The American Speaker," &c.

This work is condensed from the author's larger History of the United This work is contensed from the author's larger riskory of the United States for the Use of Schools and Academies. In reducing the quantity of matter to such a compass, as will place the volume within the reach of the common schools, no pains have been spared to preserve all that is essential to a clear and comprehensive history of the country. No event of importance, noticed in the larger history, is passed over in this, although many of the minor details are considerably condensed; and some circumstances and observations having a comparatively unimportant bearing on the main story,

are entirely omitted.

The author's design, in accomplishing the condensation of his former work, has been to furnish the common schools of the country with a history, in a cheap and convenient form, which would be complete and sufficient for the purposes of sound instruction, not only in the plan and arrangement, but in the amount of solid information which it should comprise. How far he may have succeeded in this attempt it remains for the friends of popular education

to determine.

RECOMMENDATIONS.

The following are selected from a large number of recommendations of the above work which have been received by the publishers. It has been adopted by the Controllers of the Public Schools of the City and County of Philadelphia, and by other committees of public schools in various parts of the country.

From the Rev. C. H. Alden, Principal of the Philadelphia High School for Girls.

"Frost's History of the United States" is a text-book in my school, and is justly a favourite. I have often regretted that an edition, in a smaller volume, with numerous illustrative engravings, was not furnished for the use of our junior classes and common schools. I am glad, therefore, to see what I thought a desideratum, and in a style, and at a price so well adapted to the purposes intended. This volume, I find, is abridged from the larger volume very judiciously, and can be recommended very confidently to general use. There is no history of our country, in my opinion, at all comparable with it as a common school book.

CHARLES HENRY ALDEN

· CHARLES HENRY ALDEN

Philadelphia, Oct. 23, 1837:

I judge "Frost's History of the United States" to be a most excellent epitome of American history. Many interesting and important facts relative to American affairs, in other works of the kind emitted, are therein judiciously intro-

duced. The simplicity and elegance of the style cannot fail to please every attentive reader. The appendix, containing the constitution of our beloved land, as also a useful chronological table, will render the work doubly valuable.

WM. ALEXANDER,

October 19, 1837.

Teacher of Languages, Philadelphia.

I have just got through with an examination of "Frox's History of the United States for Common Schools." I have, for a long time, felt the need

United States for Common Schools." I have, for a long time, felt the need of a history of our country that should embrace all the most important events, and, at the same time, present a style and arrangement attractive to the common reader. My wishes were fully met upon receiving a copy of the larger work, by the same author. This work ought to be placed in every library as well as in every school.

This smaller work, which appears to be condensed from the larger one, contains all the important facts and retains the same easy style that characterized the book from which it was abridged. I feel safe in recommending it to others, and shall introduce it into my seminary as an introduction the

it to others, and shall introduce it into my seminary as an introduction to the large work, so soon as I can dispense with other works now in use.

Yours, &c.

H. BILL Union Hall.

MR. E. C. BIDDLE:

Dear Sir,—I have to acknowledge the favour of copies of "Frost's United States for the use of Common Schools," and of "The American Speaker" by the same gentleman. As you have my opinion of the book from which the first of these works is condensed, it is not necessary to say much of the present volume. The author, it seems to me, has furnished a book better suited to a large class of pupils than his former work; and while it is complete and sufficient for the purposes of sound instruction, not only in the plan and arrangement, but in the amount of solid information which it comprises, can be afment, but in hie amount of solid information which it comprises, can be afforded at one-half the price of the larger volume. I am making use of both of these "Histories," with entire satisfaction. "The Speaker" contains a great variety of pieces, selected, with much care and judgment, from our most successful orators, and is well adapted to promote the object of the compiler. The Principles of Elocution, by Mr. Ewing, which are prefixed to the collection, and the number of exercises marked with inflections, give this work claims over all other books of the kind I have examined, and will, doubtless, secure for it a ready introduction to our colleges and academies. The work has been precured by a number of my pupils, and I unhesitatingly commend it.

Yours, &c.

S. INNES.

S. JONES, No 17 South Seventh street, Philadelphia.

Philadelphia, March 24, 1838.

This is to certify, that "Frost's History of the United States" nas been adopted as a class-book by the Controllers of the Public Schools of the First School District of Pennsylvania, and is in general use in the public schools in the city and county of Philadelphia

> R. PENN SMITH. Secretary of Board of Controllers.

FROST'S AMERICAN SPEAKER.

THE AMERICAN SPEAKER; comprising a comprehensive Treatise on Elocution, and an extensive Selection of Specimens of American and Foreign Eloquence. Embellished with engraved Portraits of distinguished American Orators, on steel. By J. Frost, author of History of the United States.

The design of this work is to furnish a correct and satisfactory treatise on the Principles of Elocution in a small space; and a very rich and copious collection of specimens of Deliberative, Forensic, Academic, and Popular Eloquence, filling up the greater portion of the volume. It has met with a very rapid sale, six thousand copies having been called for within a few weeks after its first appearance. The estimation in which it is held by intelligent teachers will appear by the following:

RECOMMENDATIONS.

From William Russell, Esq., Teacher of Elocution, first Editor of the Journal of Education.

Journal of Education.

Dear Sir,—The "American Speaker," edited by Mr. Frost, is, I think, one of the best volumes for practical exercises in elocution, that instructers or students can find. The rules and principles laid down in the introductory part of the book, comprise whatever is most useful in Walker's system, as abridged by Mr. Ewing of Edinburgh. The compends of Mr. Ewing were preferred to all others, by the late Dr. Porter of Andover, whose critical knowledge and pure taste in relation to the art of elocution are so extensively appreciated.

The numerous rules on the manner of reading the series—so termed by elocutionists—may be differently viewed by instructers, according to the extent to which they follow Walker's authority. But there can be no diversity of opinion as to the utility of the other parts of the work, and, particularly, the many pieces in which the inflections of the voice are marked throughout by appropriate accents.

Respectfully, yours.

Respectfully, yours, WM. RUSSELL. by appropriate accents.

Mr. E. C. Biddle, Philadelphia.

MR. BIDDLE:
I consider "Frost's American Speaker" to be the best compilation of the kind that has ever met my eye. The principles of elocution therein laid down are excellent, and well calculated to promote eloquence in every youthful American freeman. The extracts are of a high order, and, in general, breathe the spirit of liberty and independence. Giving you my best wishes for the success of the work,

I remain, very respectfully, yours,

WILLIAM ALEXANDER.

I have carefully examined "The American Speaker, by John Frost," and I have carefully examined "The American Speaker, by John Frost," and feel no hesitation in saying that I am highly pleased with the work. The rules and examples elucidating the principles of elocution, cannot fail to secure the advancement of the student in the difficult science of Oratory. I have already introduced it into my school.—With respect to Mr. J. Frost's "Abridgment of the History of the United States," I consider it extremely well calculated to give younger pupils a sufficient knowledge of the history of their own country.

Relieves Conserved 2 1899

**Province Conse Baltimore, January 2, 1838. Principal of Asbury College

PINNOCK'S ENGLAND.

PINNOCK'S IMPROVED EDITION OF DR.

GOLDSMITH'S HISTORY OF ENGLAND, from the invasion of Julius Cæsar to the death of George II., with a continuation to the year 1838: with questions for examination at the end of each section; besides a variety of valuable information added throughout the work, consisting of Tables of Contemporary Sovereigns and Eminent Persons, copious Explanatory Notes, Remarks on the Politics, Manners, and Literature of the Age, and an Outline of the Constitution. Illustrated with 30 Engravings on Wood. Fifteenth American, corrected and revised from the twenty-fourth English edition.

RECOMMENDATIONS.

MESSRS. KEY & BIDDLE, Philadelphia, Oct. 20, 1834. Gentlemen,—Be pleased to accept my thanks for the favour you have done me in sending a copy of your neat and attractive edition of Pinnock's Gold-smith's England. It appears to me to have been sedulously prepared for the purpose which it professes to subserve—that of a convenient manual for schools and academies. By the questions and tabular views at the ends of the several chapters, the scholar will be able to test his own acquisitions, and the several chapters, the scholar will be able to test his own acquisitions, and to embrace at a glance an important collection of facts, in regard to the history and biography of the period of which he has been reading. These landmarks for the memory serve to raise a host of reminiscences, all interesting to the diligent and inquiring student. With my wishes for the success of the work, accept the assurances of the high respect with which I subscribe myself.

WALTER R. JOHNSON,

Professor of Mechanics and Natural Philosophy in the Franklin Institute.

in the Franklin Institute.

From S. Jones, A.M., Principal of the Classical and Mathematical Institute,

I have attentively examined Pinnock's improved edition of Dr. Goldsmith's History of England, published by Messrs. Key & Biddle, of this city, and am impressed with its excellence. I have no hesitation in expressing my full approbation of the work, with my belief that it will receive a liberal patronage from an enlightened community.

S. JONES.

Ith Month, 1833.

I consider Pinnock's edition of Goldsmith's History of England as the best edition of that work which has yet been published for the use of schools. The tables of contemporary sovereigns and eminent persons, at the end of each chapter, afford the means of many useful remarks and comparisons with the history of other nations. With these views, I cheerfully recommend it as a book well adapted to school purposes.

Friends' Academy, Philadelphia.

[14]

We fully concur in the opinion as expressed above.

SETH SMITH,
J. H. BLACK,
THOMAS COLLANS,
JAMES CROWELL,
J. B. WALKER,
S. C. WALKER,
T. H. WILSON,
J. MADEIRA,
WILLIAM MANN,
W. MARRIOTT,
C. B. TREGO,
URIAH KITGHEN,
THOMAS EUSTACE,
JOHN HASLAM,
W. CURRAN,
J. STOCKDALE,
S. H. REEVES,
J. HAYMER,
W. B. ROSE,
CHARLES MEAD,
BENJAMIN MAYO,
REV. S. M. GAYLEY, Wilmington, Del. SETH SMITH. mington, Del. E. FOUSE, J. E. SLACK, JOSEPH R. EASTBURN, A. STEVENSON,

WILLIAM A. GARRIGUES,
M. SOULE,
REV. CHARLES HENRY ALDEN
JOHN EUSTACE,
BENJAMIN C. TUCKER,
HUGH MORROW,
WILLIAM M'NAIR,
E. H. HUBBARD,
R. LAKE,
JOHN WEBB,
JOHN ORD. WILLIAM A. GARRIGUES. JOHN WEDD,
JOHN ORD,
SAMUEL CLENDENIN,
D. R. ASHTON,
J. O'CONNOR, Secretary to the Phil JOSEPH WARREN,
THOMAS CONRAD,
THOMAS M'ADAM,
REV. SAMUEL W. CRAWFOR. THOMAS M'ADAM,
REV. SAMUEL W. CRAWFORD
A.M., Principal of Academical Dept.
of University of Pennsylvania.
M. L. HURLBUT,
R. W. CUSHMAN,
AUGUSTINE LUDINGTON,
JOHN ERHARDT,
OLIVER A. SHAW,
A. D. CLEVELAND.

Baltimore, Dec. 1834

Ve fully concur in the of SAMUEL JONES, O. W. TREADWELL, E. BENNETT, E. R. HARNEY, ROBERT O'NEILL, N. SPELMAN, S. W. ROSZELL, SAMUEL HUBBELL, H. O. WATTS, C. F. BANSEMER, D. E. REESE, S. A. CLARKE, A. M. JOHN FINLEY, A. M. JOHN FINLEY, A.M.

We fully concur in the opinion above expressed.
SAMUEL JONES,
O. W. TREADWELL,
E. BENNETT,
E. R. HARNEY,
ROBERT O'NEILL,
N. SPELMAN,
S. W. ROSZELL,
SAMUEL HUBBELL,
H. O. WATTS,
C. F. BANSEWER.

Battimore,
Battimore,
Battimore,
WILLIAM HAMILTON,
JOSEPH WALKER,
JAMES SHANLEY,
DAVID RING,
ROBERT WALKER,
D. W. B. M'CLELAN,
S. A. DAVIS,
JAMES F. GOULD,
JOSEPH H. CLARKE,
FRANCIS WATERS. FRANCIS WATERS, JOHN MAGEE, MICHAEL POWER.

Recommendations to the same general effect have been received from the following gentlemen :-

SIMEON HART, Jr., Farmington, Conn. Rev. D. R. AUSTIN, Principal of Monmouth Academy, Monson, Mass. T. L. WRIGHT, A.M., Principal of East Hartford Classical and English

T. L. WRIGHT, A.M., Principal of East Hartlord Classical and English School.

Rev. N. W. FISKE, A.M., Professor Amherst College, Mass.
E. S. SNELL, A.M., Professor Amherst College, Mass.
Rev. S. NORTH, Professor of Languages, Hamilton College, New York
W. H. SCRAM, A.M., Principal of Classical and English Academy, Troy,
New York.

JAMES F. GOULD, Principal of Classical School, Baltimore.
A. B. MYERS, Principal of Whitehall Academy, New York.
HORACE WEBSTER, Professor Geneva College, New York.
W. C. FOWLER, Professor Middlebury College, Vermont.
B. S. NOBLE, Bridgeport, Conn.
Rev. S. B. HOWE, late President of Dickinson College.
B. F. JOSLIN, Professor Union College, New York.

PINNOCK'S GREECE.

PINNOCK'S IMPROVED EDITION OF DR GOLDSMITH'S HISTORY OF GREECE. Revised, cor rected, and very considerably enlarged, by the addition of several new chapters and numerous useful notes; with questions for examination, at the end of each section. Revised from the twelfth London edition. With 30 engravings, by Atherton.

RECOMMENDATIONS.

From Mr. N. Dodge, Teacher, South Eighth street.

The edition of "Pinnock's History of Greece" on the basis of Goldsmith's, is, in my estimation, a work of superior merit. The introductory chapters are especially valuable. The body of the work is greatly improved; and the continuation, though brief, supplies a want greatly felt by every reader at the conclusion of the original work of Dr. Goldsmith. I shall introduce it into my seminary as the best text-book on the subject.

N. DODGE.

We fully concur in the opinions above expressed.

Ve fully concur in the opinion THOMAS H. WILSON, WM. ALEXANDER, A.M. JOHN SINIMONS, WILLIAM M'NAIR, EDWARD H. HUBBARD, EZEKIEL FOUSE, REV. WM. MANN, A.M. J. F. SLACK, L. W. BURNET, JOHN HASLAM, THOMAS EUSTACE, JOHN HASLAM, THOMAS EUSTACE, WILLIAM MARRIOTT, RIAL LAKE, THOMAS COLLINS, MATTHIAS NUGENT, SAMUEL CLENDENIN, JAMES CROWELL, WILLIAM B. ROSE,

AUGUSTINE LUDINGTON,
REV. SAMUEL W. CRAWFORD
A.M., Principal of the Acadl. Dept.
of the University of Pennsylvania.
THOMAS M'ADAM,
THOMAS T. AZPELL,
A. MITCHELL,
H. WORROW. A MITCHELL,
H. MORROW,
D. R. ASHTON.
BENJAMIN C. TUCKER,
ES. LEVY,
WILLIAM ROBERTS,
SAMUEL J. WILLEY,
THOMAS BALDWIN,
U. KITCHEN,
M. L. HURLBERT,
SHEPHERD A. REEVES,
EDMUND NEVILLE,
WILLIAM A. GARRIGUES,

PINNOCK'S ROME.

PINNOCK'S IMPROVED EDITION OF DR GOLDSMITH'S HISTORY OF ROME. To which is pre fixed an Introduction to the Study of Roman History, and a great variety of information throughout the work on the Manners, Institutions, and Antiquities of the Romans; with questions for examination, at the end of each section. Revised from the twelfth London edition, with additions and improvements. With 30 engravings, by Atherton.

RECOMMENDATIONS.

Having examined Pinnock's improved edition of Dr. Goldsmith's History of Rome, I unhesitatingly say, that the style and elegance of the language, the arrangement of the chapters, and the questions for examination, render it, in my estimation, a most valuable school book:—I therefore most cheerfully recommend it to teachers, and do confidently trust that it will find an extensive introduction into the schools of our country.

Raltimore, September 23, 1835. JAMES F. GOULD.

We fully concur in the above recommendation.

S. P. SKINNER, C. H. ROBERTSON, ROBERT WALKER, WILLIAM HAMILTON DAVID RING, JAMES E. SEARLEY, SAMUEL ROSZEI, E. YEATES REESE, N. SPELMAN, B. WALSH, PARDON DAVIS, SAMUEL HUBBELL, O. W. TREADWELL, A. DINSMORE,
JAMES WILKESON,
JOSEPH H. CLARKE,
S. A. CLARKE,
JOSEPH WALKER,
JAMES SHANLEY,
E. RHODES HARNEY,
ROBERT O'NEILL,
MICHAEL POWER,
JOHN PRENTISS,
EDWARD S. EBBS,
MICHAEL TONER.

From Samuel Jones, A.M., Principal of the Classical and Mathematical Institute, Philadelphia.

A writer of so honourable a popularity as Dr. Goldsmith, for all the graces of an elegant, polished, and pure style and whose histories have been so long and so extensively useful to youth, certainly needs no encomium. It may be added, however, for the information of those teachers who are not acquainted with the improvements of Pinnock, that he has been for some time eminent in England for valuable additions to school books. Of the edition of Rome, by Messrs. Key & Biddle of this city, it is believed that it will be found superior, in the manner of "getting up," to any yet published in this country; while its attractive appearance and mechanical execution lead me not only to hope,

put confidently expect, that they will receive a liberal return for their invest-

Philadelphia, September 15, 1835.

SAMUEL JONES.

From J. M. Keagy, M.D., Principal of Friends' Academy, Philadelphia.

Pinneck's edition of "Goldsmith's Rome" has several very useful additions; the one an introduction, containing an abridged view of Roman Geography and Antiquities, and the other a very appropriate extension of Roman history to the subjugation of the empire by the Northern Barbarians. This improved edition of "Goldsmith's Rome" will, no doubt retain its place in our schools as one of the best abridgments of the history of that interesting people.

JOHN M. KEAGY.

We fully concur in the above.

THOMAS BALDWIN, D. MAGENIS, Teacher of Elo-CULION.
WILLIAM A. GARRIGUES,
CHARLES HENRY ALDEN,
W. MARRIOTT,
THOMAS CONARD,
URIAH KITCHEN,
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J. H. BROWN,
JOHN STEEL,
T. G. POTTS,
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WILLIAM MANN,
L. W. BURNET,
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M. A. CRITTENDEN, Principal of a Young Ladies' Seminary. Philadelphia nary, Philadelphia.

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BENJAMIN C. TUCKER,
JAMES CROWELL,
RICHARD M'CUNNEY,
J. E. SLACK,
CCHARLES MEAD,
E. H. HUBBARD,
V. VALUE,
EDWARD POOLE.

Recommendations to the same effect have been received from the following

entlemen:

SIMEON HART, Jr., Farmington, Conn.

T. L. WRIGHT, East Hartford, Conn.

REV. N. W. FISKE, Professor Amherst College, Mass.
D. R. AUSTIN, A.M., Principal of Monson Academy.

REV. S. NORTH, Professor Hamilton College, New York,
HORACE WEBSTER, Professor Geneva College, New York,
B. G. NOBLE, Bridgeport, Conn.

REV. S. B. HOWE, late President of Dickinson College.
B. F. JOSLIN, M. D., Professor Union College, New York,
G. B. GLENDINNING, Troy, New York.
J. P. BRACE, Principal of Hartford Female Academy.
C. H. CALHOUN, A.M., Tutor William's College.
GEORGE HALE, A.M., Tutor William's College.
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W. B. ROSE,
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THOMAS M'ADAM,
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REV. SAMUEL W. CRAWFORD, A.M., Principal of the Acadl. ppt. of the University of Pennsylvania. O. A. SHAW, AUGUSTINE LUDINGTON, M. SOULE, WILLIAM A. GARRIGUES, M. L. HURLBERT S. JONES,

Baltimore, Dec. 1834.]

We fully concur in the cpinion above expressed.

Ve fully concur in the count
E. BENNETT,
C. F. BANSEMAR,
E. R. HARNEY,
ROBERT O'NEILL,
N. SPELMAN.
S. W. ROSZELL,
SAMUEL HUBBELL,
D. E. REESE,
S. A. CLARKE,
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REV. S. M. GAYLEY,
mington, Del.

mington, Del.

JAMES SHANLEY,

JAMES SHANLEY,
DAVID RING,
ROBERT WALKER,
D. W. B. M'CLELAN,
S. A. DAVIS,
JAMES F. GOULD,
JOSEPH H. CLARKE, A.M
FRANCIS WATERS,
JOHN MAGEE,
MICHAEL POWER,
C. D. CLEVELAND.

Willbraham, Oct. 27, 1834. We have used Guy's Astronomy, and Keith on the Globes, as a text-book, during the past year; it is in all respects such an one as was wanted, and we have no disposition to exchange it for any other with which we are acquainted. WM. G. MITCHELLS Lecturer on the Natural Sciences and Astronomy,

in Wesleyan Academy, Mass.

New York, Dec., 1834.

We fully concur in the opinion above expressed.

BERNARD THORNTON, HORACE COVELL, HORACE COVELL,
P. PERRINE,
J. B. KIDDER,
SOLOMON JENNER,
JOSEPH M'KEEN,
C. CARTER,
LEONARD HAZELTINE,
VOSEPH CHAMBERLAIN JOSEPH CHAMBERLAIN, W. R. ADDINGTON, HENRY SWORDS, J. M. ELY, W. M. SOMERVILLE,
NORTON THAYER,
THOMAS GILDERSLIEVE,
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THOMAS V. FOWLER,
JOSEPH BAILE,
SAMUEL GARDNER,
WILLIAM FORREST,
C. W. NICHOLS C. W. NICHOLS, THOMAS M'KEE, ADN. HEGEMAN, G. VALE.

Recommendations of the same tenor have been received from the following gentlemen:

REV. D. R. AUSTIN, A.M., Principal of Monson Academy, Mass. T. L. WRIGHT, Principal of East Hartford Classical and English School. S. HART, Principal of Farmington Academy, Conn. C. D. WESTBROOK, D.D., New Brunswick, New Jersey. W. H. SCRAM, Principal of Classical Academy, Troy, New York. E. H. BURRITT, Author of the Geography of the Heavens, New Britain,

WM. C. FOWLER, Professor of Chemistry in Middlebury College, Ver-

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adies. Rev. S. B. HOWE, late President of Dickinson College.
Rev. Dr. WESTBROOK, Principal of Female Seminary and Rector of
Rutgers' College Grammar School.
Dr. B. F. JOSLIN, Professor Union College, New York.
GEORGE B. GLENDINING, Principal of Young Ladies Academy, Troy,

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RECOMMENDATIONS.

Philadelphia, March 7, 1833.

Bridge's Algebra is the text-book in the school under my care; and I am better pleased with it than with any which I have heretofore used. The author is very clear in his explanations, and systematic in his arrangement, and has succeeded in rendering a comparatively abstruse branch of science, an agreeable and interesting exercise both to pupil and teacher JOHN FROST.

We fully concur in the opinion above expressed.

CHARLES HENRY ALDEN, J. O'CONNOR, Secretary to the Philadelphia Association of Teachers.

JOSEPH WARREN SAMUEL CLENDENIN, S. H. REEVES.

University of Pennsylvania, March 30, 1833.

Gentlemen,—In compliance with your request that I would give you my epinion respecting your edition of Bridge's Algebra, I beg leave to say, that the work appears to be well adapted to the instruction of students. The arrangement of the several parts of the science is judicious, and the examples are numerous and well selected.

Yours, respectfully, ROBERT ADRAIN.

We fully concur in the opinion of Bridge's Algebra as expressed by Dr. Adrain.

J. HAYMER, HUGH MORROW, WILLIAM M'NAIR, OLIVER A. SHAW, SETH SMITH, SAMUEL E. JONES, INO. M. KEAGY.

B. N. LEWIS, JOHN STOCKDALE, W. B. ROSE, BENJAMIN MAYO, J. H. BLACK, THOMAS M'ADAM, JOHN ERHARDT,

THOMAS CONARD,
THOMAS COLLINS,
J. E. SLACK,
C. B. TREGO,
J. B. WALKER,
JOHN HASLAM,
W. CURRAN,

Rev. SAML. W. CRAWFORD, A.M., Principal of the Academical Dept. of the University of Pennsylvania. R. W. CUSHMAN, Rev. S. M. GAYLEY, Wilmington, Del.

Baltimore, December, 1834.

We fully concur in the opinion above expressed.

E. BENNETT,
E. R. HARNEY,
ROBERT O'NEILL,
N. SPELMAN,
S. W. ROSZELL,
SAMUEL HUBBELL,
H. O. WATTS,
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D. W. M'CLELAN,
S. A. DAVIS,
JOSEPH H. CLARKE, A.M.
FRANCIS WATERS,
JOHN MAGEE,
MICHAEL POWER.

Messrs. Key & Biddle:

Gentlemen,—I have been highly gratified by an examination of "Bridge's Algebra," published by you; and think it well entitled to general introduction in our schools. I shall give it a preference in my academy to any work I have seen.

Respectfully, yours, you

J. H. BROWN, Principal of an English and Mathematical Academy No. 52 Cherry street, Philadelphia.

New York, December, 1834.

We fully concur in the opinion above expressed.

P. PERRINE,
J. B. KIDDER,
SOLOMON JENNER,
JOSEPH M'KEEN,
C. CARTER,
W. R. ADDINGTON,
HENRY SWORDS,
W. M. SOMERVILLE,

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MELANCTHON HOYT,
THOMAS V. FOWLER,
JOSEPH BAILE,
SAMUEL GARDNER,
C. W. NICHOLS,
THOMAS M'KEE.

The gentlemen named below have also sent the publishers strong recommendations of Bridge's Algebra:

PROFESSOR E. A. ANDREWS, Mount Vernon Institute, Boston.
REV. C. DEWEY, Professor Berkshire Gymnasium, Mass.
N. S. DODGE, Principal of Young Ladies' Seminary, Pittsfield, Mass.
M. CATLIN, Professor of Mathematics, Hamilton College, New York.
GEORGE HALE, A.M., Tutor William's College, Mass.
B. G. NOBLE, Bridgeport, Conn.
REV. D. R. AUSTIN, Principal of Monson Academy, Mass.
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E. H. BURRITT, Author of the Geography of the Heavens, New Britain

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